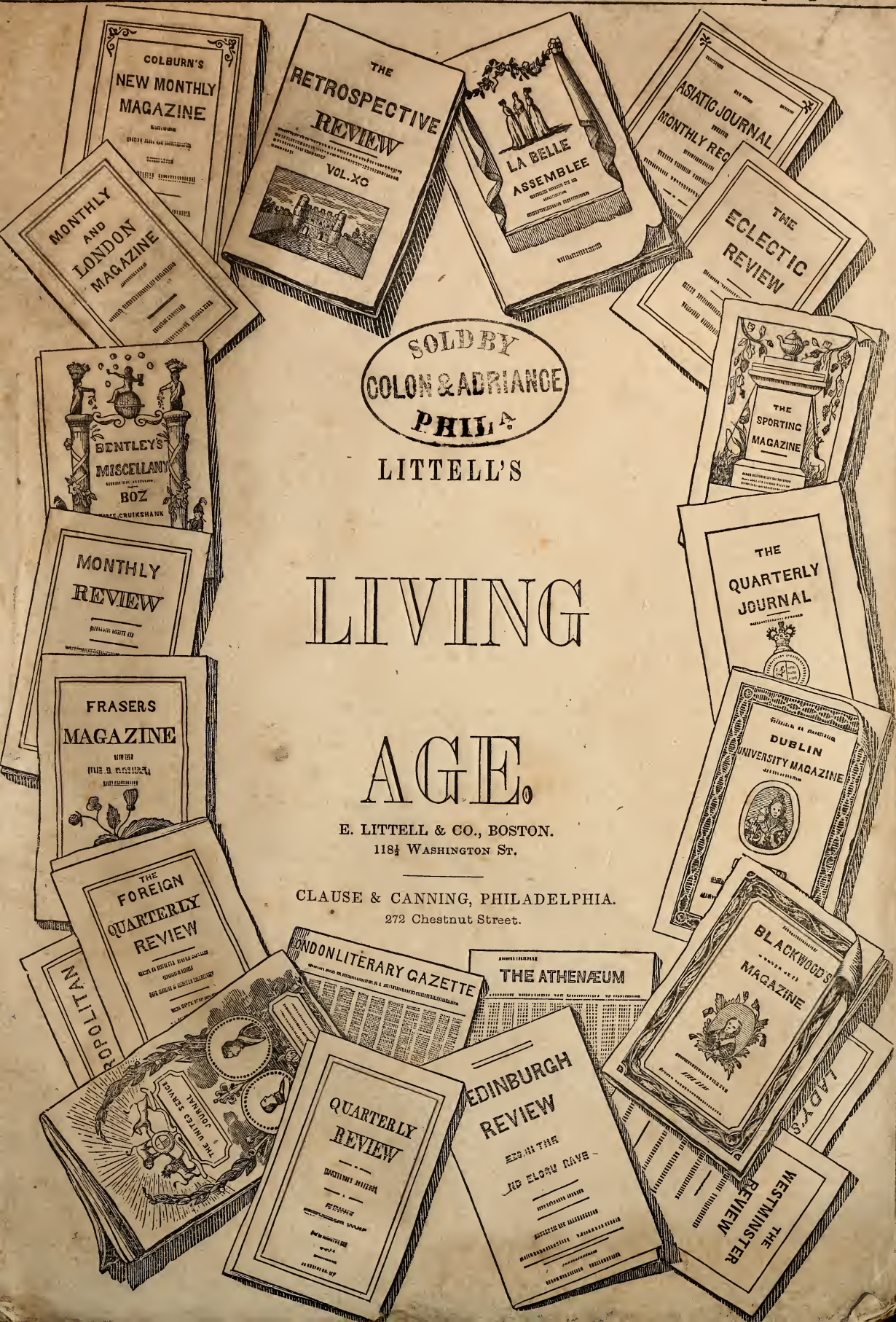




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AGE.

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CLAUDE & CANNING, PHILADELPHIA.
272 Chestnut Street.

Cambridge, April 24, 1844.

DEAR SIR, — I have read the prospectus of your proposed periodical, "The Living Age," with great pleasure; and entirely approve the plan. If it can only obtain the public patronage long enough, and large enough, and securely enough, to attain its true ends, it will contribute in an eminent degree to give a healthy tone, not only to our literature, but to public opinion. It will enable us to possess, in a moderate compass, a select library of the best productions of the age. It will do more: it will redeem our periodical literature from the reproach of being devoted to light and superficial reading, to transitory speculations, to sickly and ephemeral sentimentalities, and false and extravagant sketches of life and character.

I wish it every success; and my only fear is, that it may not meet as full success with the public as it deserves. I shall be glad to be a subscriber.

I am, very truly and respectfully, yours,

JOSEPH STORY.

T. H. CARTER, Esq.

Cambridge, April 30, 1844.

I fully concur with Mr. Justice Story in his estimate of the utility and importance of the proposed publication; and, if well executed, I cannot doubt that it will furnish a valuable contribution to our literature, not merely of temporary interest, but of permanent value.

JARED SPARKS.

New York, 7th May, 1844.

DEAR SIR, — I approve very much of the plan of your work, to be published weekly, under the title of the "LIVING AGE;" and if it be conducted with the intelligence, spirit and taste that the prospectus indicates, (of which I have no reason to doubt,) it will be one of the most instructive and popular periodicals of the day.

I wish it abundant success, and that my name be added to the list of subscribers.

Yours, very respectfully,

MR. E. LITTELL.

JAMES KENT.

SUBSCRIPTIONS, *by the year*, are Six Dollars.

POSTMASTERS, who send us lists of Subscribers, and money for them, pay Five Dollars a year.

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THE LIVING AGE.

No. 5.—15 JUNE, 1844.

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CORRESPONDENCE.

In the management of the Museum of Foreign Literature, we never hesitated to reprint foreign attacks upon the United States, however ill-natured, or however true they might be. We have no sympathy with the very great tenderness of that patriotism which cannot hear of our *alleged* faults, and shrinks from every attack.

But as the good people abroad now begin to know something of us, we may be sure that their attention will be turned more and more this way; and not having the fear of stern democracy, or its great apostles before their eyes, they may, perhaps, not only praise the country itself, less than they ought, but they may even doubt the perfect wisdom or virtue of Whig or Democratic leaders! Shall we, then, who wish to show to this country the public opinion of England and of Europe, upon all leading topics of the day, be afraid to print what may be said of our great *men*? Are they not deserving of European attention—and must we not know what is said of them? We shall venture to trust to the candor of our readers, and without dread of being suspected to be opposed either to one party or the other, shall, with all the impartiality of history, repeat such praise or censure, as may seem to us of some interest or amusement, whether it agree, or disagree with our private opinions and prejudices.

On the subject of Texas, the comments we copy are somewhat savage; but, although the subjects do not seem to be thought of in connexion, the censure of the British annexations in India, (*against the will of the annexed by the way*) is equally decided, if not so sharp. *That is not the "grasping" of a republic.*

The question of the meaning of the words "the most favored nation," in late treaties, is likely to become of considerable importance. If the British interpretation be settled, it is likely to result in *more* free trade than Lord Aberdeen supposes.

The Spectator's article upon the East India corporation, has interest for all Anglo-Saxon governments, in none of which is the power resident in a single head. The division has succeeded in practice, better than could *a priori* have been supposed. The recall of Lord Ellenborough is a striking proof that "*her merchants are princes.*" Punch has an engraving representing his Lordship in the character of Othello, bidding farewell to all the pomp that makes ambition virtue; and exclaiming "*Ellenborough's occupation's gone.*"

The Prince de Joinville's *abstract* speculations upon the feasibility of sending troops to invade England, now that steam is in operation, must often have occurred to Napoleon, if he has continued to be interested in European politics.

Let neither grave or gay readers fail to read the article on the Anatomy and Philosophy of Expression. They will all be pleased with it.

If the conclusions of the writer on the Atmospheric Railway, should be proved to be sound, it will come into extensive use. We do not understand the mode of operation in all respects, but shall probably get more light from other articles.

SIR ROBERT PEEL'S Currency Plan will be a very great improvement. The changes in the money market will be regulated by *nature*, and not by the discretion of a Board of Directors. So they will be more gradual, and less.

So far as can be judged of by what came before the public, in the canvass of 1840, Mr. Webster's plans were similar.

The writer of these lines went to Washington in 1833, to endeavor to impress upon General Jackson the great advantage of establishing *our* paper currency upon the same principles, and at the same time of making the change very gradually, through a new charter to the Bank of the United States. But it is not recorded that Hercules did anything in the way of *building up*; perhaps his time was too much occupied by clearing the ground.

After the opportunity of using the Bank of the United States as a *transition state* had passed, we urged successively upon Mr. Van Buren, General Harrison, Mr. Tyler and Mr. Clay, the establishment of the currency on fixed principles, by means of a new department of the government itself, similar in its constitution to the Supreme Court, so as to be above executive control.

The capital proposed, was the Public Lands; the paper issued to be payable on demand at the Mint in Philadelphia. The amount of issue, to be so arranged that it would gradually increase as the needs of commerce required it as a means of domestic exchange. Failure to pay on demand, to ensure loss of office; the profits and interest to be divided among the States.

The whole was founded upon the same principle as that on which Sir Robert Peel's plan rests:—that the amount of the currency should vary by the increase or diminution of gold and silver, but *not* by the increase or diminution of bank notes. So far as the currency is composed of the latter, it should be fixed by strong bounds. We are encouraged to hope *now* for a hearing from the country on a subject which has no connexion with party politics, and shall take an opportunity of again asking attention to a few words on a matter which we have long thought of the greatest importance to the *morals*, as well as the trade of the United States.

From Hood's Magazine.

A FORCED MARCH WITH ESPARTERO.

AMONGST the various calumnies that have been circulated concerning the late Regent of Spain, perhaps the most glaringly untrue is the imputation of a want of personal courage. Whatever may be his abilities as a statesman or a general, as a soldier his bravery is unquestionable, and, indeed, has often led him into acts which, however laudable they might have been in a young officer who had his way to make in the service, might almost be qualified as rashness on the part of the leader of an army, whose life is of too great value to be risked like that of a mere subaltern. It would be easy to cite a dozen instances of dashing and headlong courage on the part of Espartero. The following anecdote may however suffice:—

It was in the month of April, 1838, that the Carlist general, Count Negri, at the head of two or three thousand men, crossed the Ebro and made an incursion into Castile. As soon as this was known, several divisions of Christian troops started in his pursuit; Iriarte in one direction, Castañeda in another, Espartero himself, in a third. There was a good deal of marching and counter-marching, but Negri's movements were rapid, and his information good, and for some time he managed to elude his pursuers. I was then attached to Espartero's division, and on his escort, which consisted of a troop of English lancers and a detachment of Spanish cazadores of the guard, together with about eighty horses.

The pursuit of Negri had lasted some days, and had brought us to Burgos, whence we marched at daybreak one morning, and late in the afternoon reached a village where we were to halt for the night. The men got into their billets, disencumbered themselves of their knapsacks, were beginning to cook their dinner, for which a severe march had given them a tolerable appetite. It was six o'clock in the evening. Suddenly, a boy, fourteen or fifteen years of age, mounted on a bare-backed horse that was literally white with foam, came dashing full speed into the village, scattering the fires that had been lighted in the street, and causing a woful disturbance among the temporary kitchens of the hungry soldiers. Regardless of the curses and threats vociferated after him, he galloped on, and only drew bit when he reached the centre of the town, where he inquired for the quarters of the general, for whom, he said, he had most important intelligence. Having, at length, been brought before Espartero, he stated that he had seen Negri and his division, not above two or three leagues off, marching in the direction of the Carrascal.

Espartero could at first hardly credit this. None of the information he had had through more regular channels led him to believe the enemy so near. He suspected it might be some stratagem of the Carlists to put him on a wrong scent, and cross-questioned the boy severely and minutely. The lad, however, was perfectly consistent in his replies; nobody had sent him, he said; he saw the Carlists, took a horse out of a field, and came immediately to inform the general.

It would not do to lose a chance. Espartero gave a few hurried orders to his aides-de-camp; and the next minute the tired soldiers were disturbed in their culinary preparations by the roll of drums and braying of trumpets. Horses were resaddled, knapsacks and muskets resumed, half-

cooked rations thrust into holster-pipes and haversacks, and in an incredibly short time the division was again on the march. Upon reaching the place where the boy said he had seen the Carlists, we found indications of the passage of a body of troops. This gave fresh ardor to the pursuit, but, nevertheless, the men were so tired, that it was evident they would never be able to overtake the light-footed mountaineers, we were in search of, and Espartero resolved to push on with his escort, leaving the others to follow more slowly.

La Escolta! Adelante la Escolta! was the cry, and away we went; Espartero, his staff and aides-de-camp, about twenty in number, followed by the escort, in all about one hundred horsemen, the best mounted in the division. The lad who had brought the news was with us. The general had promised him a large reward if he had spoken the truth; a rope and a tree, if he was misleading us. The poor boy seemed dreadfully frightened at this, but at the same time persisted in his story.

On we went, at a hand-gallop where the ground was good, as fast as we could where it was steep and broken. We at length reached the Carrascal, which is a table-land of considerable extent on the top of a chain of mountains; this was fine ground for a canter, and we made the most of it. At last, after a rapid and fagging march, we found ourselves, at about two hours before daybreak, on a sort of ridge, whence, looking downwards, we saw the fires of the Carlists who were bivouacked around two or three cottages, which served probably as quarters for their leaders. The night was very black, and we could see nothing but the fires, or occasionally the dark form of some sentinel pacing to and fro before their light. There was perfect stillness in the camp; the Carlists were sleeping, totally unsuspecting of our vicinity.

On our part, we could do nothing but wait for daylight, by which time we trusted the division would be up. It was tantalizing in the extreme to be so close to the enemy, whom we might easily have surprised, and not to have sufficient men to attack him; although, even had we been more numerous, it would still have been the best policy to wait till morning, for in the confusion of a night attack many of the Carlists would doubtless have escaped. There we remained then, perfectly still, awaiting the arrival of the division. It was a most exciting situation; and we were in a fever of anxiety and suspense, fearful lest our prey might yet slip through our fingers. We listened to every sound of the wind and rustle amongst the trees, taking it for the tramp of our approaching troops, although we knew well enough that they must still be a long way behind us.

Two hours passed in this manner, during which we saw the bivouac fires one after the other smoulder away, and become extinguished. At last the faint tinge of gray appeared in the east; a brass band was heard clanging out the *diana*, and immediately all was bustle and preparation among the Carlists. They were soon ready for the march, and presently we saw a long dark line winding like a huge snake through the glimmering twilight; it was the Carlist column moving rapidly away, refreshed by the night's repose, and marching at a pace which made it pretty evident we should never catch them if we waited the coming up of our tired comrades. It was a risking thing to do, to attack upwards of two thousand men with only a hundred dragoons; but the temptation was great, and Espartero was just the man to give

way to it Putting himself at the head of the escort, he gave the word, and dashed after the Carlists at a gallop. As soon as the latter perceived us, their handful of cavalry faced about, and made as if they would have charged us, but when they saw us coming steadily on, they turned and went off at a *saute-qui-peut* sort of pace, which soon carried them to a safe distance. We did not care much about them; there were two thousand infantry marching in a column of fours, and we considered that if we made sure of *those*, it would not be a bad morning's work. We soon overtook them, and without striking a blow, or killing or wounding a single man, we cantered along the side of the column, shouting as we passed, "Halt! Down with your arms! Quarter for all!" The Carlists thought, no doubt, that a whole division was upon them, and, panic-struck, they obeyed our orders, and halted as they were bid. We rode to the very head of the column, right in front of everything, and then halted and faced about, and there we were with all our troubles before us: two thousand prisoners to keep, and a hundred men to keep them!

It was now getting pretty light, and the Carlists were able to see our small numbers. Certainly, if they had chosen to give us a volley, they might have exterminated us, but they still supposed the division to be close at our heels, and thought it better to submit with a good grace. When it became broad daylight, and half an hour or more had elapsed without any accession to our strength, I saw some of the Carlist officers looking at one another, as much as to say, "They have had too cheap a bargain of us." We were scarcely even numerous enough to guard the muskets, and we should have found ourselves in the awkward position of having caught a Tartar, but for the very temerity of the attack, which prevented the enemy from suspecting how far we were from our main body. All remained quiet, and at last, to our great joy, the division came up, and our prisoners were secured, not a man escaping, except the cavalry and Count Negri himself, who accompanied them in their flight, and returned mightily crestfallen to the Carlist country.

Inquiries were now made for the lad who had brought the information concerning the whereabouts of the enemy; it appeared that he had been so terrified and confused by the menace of being shot or hung if he misled us, that when we charged he seized the opportunity of escaping. He concealed himself in some village, and several days elapsed before he could be traced; at last he was discovered, and by Espartero's orders munificently rewarded for the important service he had rendered to the queen's cause.

From Hood's Magazine.

A SONG OF THE SEASON.

THERE is a voice through our city sent,
But not with its thousand murmurs blent;
For it hath no part in the jarring sounds
That rise in a city's troubled bounds.

But it tells of the flowers by rock and rill
Whose breath the breezes bring;

And the words of that pleasant voice are still—

"Come forth to meet the spring;
For she comes as full of promise yet
As when Eden's flowers her footsteps met.

"Come forth, for the light of her smile hath shone
On the far old hills and forests lone;
They are green with the dews of gentle showers,
They are rich in the odors of early flowers.

Come forth, for the buds of another spring

May all as brightly bloom;

But the trees of the churchyard's growth may fling

Their shade o'er many a tomb,

And eyes that are beaming brightly now

May gaze no more on the blossomed bough."

They hear that summons loud and long,

In the crowded haunts of the toiling throng;

It fills the dreams of the 'prisoned child

With songs of the woodbirds sweet and wild;

But it whispers love in the sleepless ear

Of the maiden young and pale,

Of a cottage home by a fountain clear,

In a far and sunny vale.

And the young heart answers with a prayer

For the lot of the birds and blossoms there.

It speaks by the prison's dreary walls,

Of plains where the oak's broad shadow falls,

Of dewy dells and of breezy steeps,

Where the stream in its path of freedom sweeps:

And, oh! how its faintest murmurs rise

By the sick and lonely bed,

For they tell of the health and hope that lies

Where the wood-flowers' scents are shed;

But the spring that shines on that slumberer's dreams

Hath never brightened our earthly streams.

It speaks, in the student's lonely room,

Of sweeter love, where the violets bloom

By homes or graves, where he left the truth

And love, perchance, of his blighted youth,

Till the weary eye from pen and page

Turns fondly back at last

To the joy of its early heritage,

In the glow of summers past;

For nought that can meet his onward gaze

Hath half the light of those vanished days.

It breathes on the exile's hours of rest

A dream of the land he loves the best;

Till its scenes arise to his memory's view,

Still bright with the springs his childhood knew,

Oh! could such blessed dreams restore

To the withered hearts of men,

The bloom of those early springs once more!

For the flowers may come again;

But they never can be what they have been

To the heart before it lost its green.

"Come forth, come forth;" how that joyous call

Is sent like the winds of heaven to all!

But it comes in vain to many a heart,

For whom life hath lost its better part.

Ah! wo for the hopeless years that bring

No summers in their flight;

But joy to the land of our promised spring,

Where the bloom is ever bright;

For hearts who have lost their verdure here

May find it yet in that fadeless sphere.

Thus raintly murmurs a broken string,

Awake by the passing breath of spring;

But it wakens no more the harp whose swell

Hath echoed its sweetest tones so well.

We heard them far, and we loved them long,

That gentle harp and hand;

But they left our paths for the ceaseless song

Of the minstrel's "Better Land,"

And the isles may listen long in vain,

Till the spring-breeze wakes such a harp again.

FRANCES BROWN.

From Hood's Magazine.

THREATENING LETTER TO THOMAS HOOD,

FROM AN ANCIENT GENTLEMAN.

BY FAVOR OF CHARLES DICKENS.

[For the benefit of country gentlemen, it may be well to explain, that the neglect of men of Letters, Science and Art, by the Queen—her great attention to General Tom Thumb, and to the Ojibbeway Indians, (one of whom married an English—*Lady*, so an English traveller would have called her had she married here,) are the causes of this writer's alarm. He takes occasion to say a word in favor of perpetual copyright.]

MR. HOOD—SIR,—The constitution is going at last! You need n't laugh, Mr. Hood. I am aware that it has been going, two or three times before; perhaps four times; but it is on the move now, sir, and no mistake.

I beg to say, that I use those last expressions advisedly, sir, and not in the sense in which they are now used by jackanapeses. There were no jackanapeses when I was a boy, Mr. Hood. England was Old England when I was young. I little thought it would ever come to be Young England when I was old. But every thing is going backward.

Ah! governments were governments, and judges were judges, in *my* day, Mr. Hood. There was no nonsense then. Any of your seditious complainings, and we were ready with the military on the shortest notice. We should have charged Covent Garden Theatre, sir, on a Wednesday night: at the point of the bayonet. Then, the judges were full of dignity and firmness, and knew how to administer the law. There is only one judge who knows how to do his duty, now. He tried that revolutionary female the other day, who, though she was in full work (making shirts at three-halpence a piece,) had no pride in her country, but treasonably took it in her head, in the distraction of having been robbed of her easy earnings, to attempt to drown herself and her young child; and the glorious man went out of his way, sir—out of his way—to call her up for instant sentence of Death; and to tell her she had no hope of mercy in this world—as you may see yourself if you look in the papers of Wednesday, the 17th of April. He won't be supported sir, I know he won't; but it is worth remembering that his words were carried into every manufacturing town of this kingdom, and read aloud to crowds in every political parlor, beer-shop, news-room, and secret or open place of assembly, frequented by the discontented working men; and that no milk-and-water weakness on the part of the executive can ever blot them out. Great things like that, are caught up, and stored up, in these times, and are not forgotten, Mr. Hood. The public at large (especially those who wish for peace and conciliation) are universally obliged to him. If it is reserved for any man to set the Thames on fire, it is reserved for him; and indeed I am told he very nearly did it, once.

But even he won't save the constitution, sir; it is mauled beyond his power of preservation. Do you know in what foul weather it will be sacrificed and shipwrecked, Mr. Hood? Do you know on what rock it will strike, sir? You don't, I am certain; for nobody does know, as yet, but myself. I will tell you.

The constitution will go down, sir (nautically

speaking,) in the degeneration of the human species in England, and its reduction into a mingled race of savages and pigmies.

That is my proposition. That is my prediction. That is the event of which I give you warning. I am now going to prove it, sir.

You are a literary man, Mr. Hood, and have written, I am told, some things worth reading. I say I am told, because I never read what is written in these days. You'll excuse me; but my principle is, that no man ought to know any thing about his own time, except that it is the worst time that ever was, or is ever likely to be. That is the only way, sir, to be truly wise and happy.

In your station as a literary man, Mr. Hood, you are frequently at the court of Her Gracious Majesty the Queen. God bless her! You have reason to know that the three great keys to the royal palace (after rank and politics) are Science, Literature, Art. I don't approve of this myself. I think it ungenteel and barbarous, and quite un-English; the custom having been a foreign one, ever since the reigns of the uncivilised sultans in the Arabian Nights, who always called the wise men of their time about them. But so it is. And when you don't dine at the royal table, there is always a knife and fork for you at the equeuries' table: where I understand, all gifted men are made particularly welcome.

But all men can't be gifted, Mr. Hood. Neither scientific, literary, nor artistical powers are any more to be inherited than the property arising from scientific, literary, or artistic productions, which the law, with a beautiful imitation of nature, declines to protect in the second generation. Very good, sir. Then, people are naturally very prone to cast about in their minds for other means of getting at Court-Favor; and, watching the signs of the times, to hew out for themselves, or their descendants, the likeliest roads to that distinguished goal.

Mr. Hood, it is pretty clear, from recent records in the Court Circular, that if a father wish to train up his son in the way he should go, to go to Court: and cannot indenture him to be a scientific man, an author, or an artist, three courses are open to him. He must endeavor by artificial means to make him a dwarf, a wild man, or a Boy Jones.

Now, sir, this is the shoal and quicksand on which the constitution will go to pieces.

I have made inquiry, Mr. Hood, and find that in my neighborhood two families and a fraction out of every four, in the lower and middle classes of society, are studying and practising all conceivable arts to keep their infant children down. Understand me. I do not mean down in their numbers, or down in their precocity, but down in their growth, sir. A destructive and subduing drink, compounded of gin and milk in equal quantities, such as is given to puppies to retard their growth: not something short, but something shortening: is administered to these young creatures many times a day. An unnatural and artificial thirst is first awakened in these infants by meals of salt beef, bacon, anchovies, sardines, red herrings, shrimps, olives, pea-soup, and that description of diet; and when they screech for drink, in accents that might melt a heart of stone, which they do constantly (I allude to screeching, not to melting,) this liquid is introduced into their too confiding stomachs. At such an early age, and to so great an extent, is this custom of provoking thirst, then quenching it with a

stunting drink, observed, that brine-pap has already superseded the use of tops and bottoms; and wet-nurses, previously free from any kind of reproach, have been seen to stagger in the streets; owing, sir, to the quantity of gin introduced into their systems, with a view to its gradual and natural conversion into the fluid I have already mentioned.

Upon the best calculation I can make, this is going on, as I have said, in the proportion of about two families and a fraction in four. In one more family, and a fraction out of the same number, efforts are being made to reduce the children to a state of nature; and to inculcate, at a tender age, the love of raw flesh, train oil, new rum, and the acquisition of scalps. Wild and outlandish dances are also in vogue, (you will have observed the prevailing rage for the Polka,) and savage cries and whoops are much indulged in (as you may discover, if you doubt it, in the House of Commons any night.) Nay, some persons, Mr. Hood—and persons of some figure and distinction too—have already succeeded in breeding wild sons; who have been publicly shown in the Courts of Bankruptcy, and in police-offices, and in other commodious exhibition-rooms, with great effect, but who have not yet found favor at court; in consequence, as I infer, of the impression made by Mr. Rankin's wild men being two fresh and recent. To say nothing of Mr. Rankin's wild men being foreigners.

I need not refer you, sir, to the late instance of the Ojibbeway Bride. But I am credibly informed, that she is on the eve of retiring into a savage fastness, where she may bring forth and educate a wild family, who shall in course of time, by the dexterous use of the popularity they are certain to acquire at Windsor and St. James', divide with dwarfs the principal offices of state, of patronage, and power, in the United Kingdom.

Consider the deplorable consequences, Mr. Hood, which must result from these proceedings, and the encouragement they receive in the highest quarters.

The dwarf being the favorite, sir, it is certain that the public mind will run in a great and eminent degree upon the production of dwarfs. Perhaps the failures only will be brought up, wild. The imagination goes a long way in these cases; and all that the imagination *can* do, will be done, and is doing. You may convince yourself of this, by observing the condition of those ladies who take particular notice of General Tom Thumb at the Egyptian Hall, during his hours of performance.

The rapid increase of dwarfs, will be first felt in her Majesty's recruiting department. The standard will, of necessity, be lowered; the dwarfs will grow smaller and smaller; the vulgar expression "a man of his inches" will become a figure of fact, instead of a figure of speech; crack regiments, household-troops especially, will pick the smallest men from all parts of the country; and in the two little porticoes at the Horse Guards, two Tom Thumbs will be daily seen doing duty, mounted on a pair of Shetland ponies. Each of them will be relieved (as Tom Thumb is, at this moment, in the intervals of his performance) by a wild man; and a British grenadier will either go into a quart pot, or be an Old Boy, a Blue Gull, a Flying Bull, or some other savage chief of that nature.

I will not expatiate upon the number of dwarfs who will be found representing Grecian statues in all parts of the metropolis; because I am inclined to think that this will be a change for the

better; and that the engagement of two or three in Trafalgar Square will tend to the improvement of the public taste.

The various genteel employments at court being held by dwarfs, sir, it will be necessary to alter, in some respects, the present regulations. It is quite clear that not even General Tom Thumb himself could preserve a becoming dignity on state occasions, if required to walk about with a scaffolding-pole under his arm; therefore the gold and silver sticks at present used, must be cut down into skewers of those precious metals; a twig of the black rod will be quite as much as can be conveniently preserved; the coral and bells of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, will be used in lieu of the mace at present in existence; and that bauble (as Oliver Cromwell called it, Mr. Hood,) its value being first calculated by Mr. Finlayson, the government actuary, will be placed to the credit of the National Debt.

All this, sir, will be the death of the constitution. But this is not all. The constitution dies hard, perhaps; but there is enough disease impending, Mr. Hood, to kill it three times over.

Wild men will get into the House of Commons. Imagine that, sir! Imagine Strong Wind in the House of Commons! It is not an easy matter to get through a debate now; but, I say, imagine Strong Wind, speaking for the benefit of his constituents, upon the floor of the House of Commons! or imagine (which is pregnant with more awful consequences still) the ministry having an interpreter in the House of Commons, to tell the country, in English, what it really means!

Why, sir, that in itself would be blowing the constitution out of the mortar in St. James' Park, and leaving nothing of it to be seen but smoke.

But this, I repeat it, is the state of things to which we are fast tending, Mr. Hood; and I inclose my card for your private eye, that you may be quite certain of it. What the condition of this country will be, when its standing army is composed of dwarfs, with here and there a wild man to throw its ranks into confusion, like the elephants employed in war in former times, I leave you to imagine, sir. It may be objected by some hopeful jackanapeses, that the number of impressments in the navy, consequent upon the seizure of the Boy-Joneses, or remaining portion of the population ambitious of court favor, will be in itself sufficient to defend our Island from foreign invasion. But I tell those jackanapeses, sir, that, while I admit the wisdom of the Boy Jones precedent, of kidnapping such youths after the expiration of their several terms of imprisonment as vagabonds; hurrying them on board ship; and packing them off to sea again whenever they venture to take the air on shore; I deny the justice of the inference; inasmuch as it appears to me, that the inquiring minds of those young outlaws must naturally lead to their being hanged by the enemy as spies, early in their career; and before they shall have been rated on the books of our fleet as able seamen.

Such, Mr. Hood, sir, is the prospect before us! And unless you, and some of your friends who have influence at Court, can get up a giant as a forlorn hope, it is all over with this ill-fated land.

In reference to your own affairs, sir, you will take whatever course may seem to you most prudent and advisable after this warning. It is not a warning to be slighted: that I happen to know.

I am informed by the gentleman who favors this, that you have recently been making some changes and improvements in your Magazine, and are, in point of fact, starting afresh. If I be well informed, and this be really so, rely upon it that you cannot start too small, sir. Come down to the duodecimo size instantly, Mr. Hood. Take time by the forelock; and, reducing the stature of your Magazine every month, bring it at last to the dimensions of the little almanack no longer issued, I regret to say, by the ingenious Mr. Schloss: which was invisible to the naked eye until examined through a little eye-glass. You project, I am told, the publication of a new novel, by yourself, in the pages of your Magazine. A word in your ear. I am not a young man, sir, and have had some experience. Don't put your own name on the title-page; it would be suicide and madness. Treat with General Tom Thumb, Mr. Hood, for the use of his name on any terms. If the gallant general should decline to treat with you, get Mr. Barnum's name, which is the next best in the market. And when, through this politic course, you shall have received, in presents, a richly-jewelled set of tablets from Buckingham Palace, and a gold watch and appendages from Marlborough House; and when those valuable trinkets shall be left under a glass case at your publisher's for inspection by your friends and the public in general;—then, sir, you will do me the justice of remembering this communication.

It is unnecessary for me to add, after what I have observed in the course of this letter, that I am not,

Sir,
Ever
Your
CONSTANT READER.

Tuesday, 23d April, 1844.

P. S.—Impress it upon your contributors that they must be too short; and that if not dwarfish, they must be wild—or at all events not tame.

CHESS STUDIES.

Chess Studies: comprising One Thousand Games, actually played during the last Half Century. By GEORGE WALKER.—Longman and Co.

MR. WALKER'S boast that this collection of specimens of chess skill is *unique*, and that it will form a complete encyclopædia of reference to the student and player of chess, is quite just and well-founded. It contains upwards of a thousand games, almost all of them the classical exploits of the best chess-warriors of the age.

And, since any record of games was kept, what age in the annals of chess-warfare has surpassed our own—either in attack or defence, in “desperate assault or siege and mine,” in “brilliancy of imagination, thirst for invention, judgment of position,” or *eminent view of the board*? Let Mr. Walker answer:

“Should the bygone century taunt us with Philidor, Bernard, or Legalle, we reply with De la Bourdonnais, Des Chapelles, and M'Donnell:—bearded by Boncourt, and Sarratt; by Lolli, Del Rio, and Ponziani,—we proudly oppose to them the names of Cochrane, of St. Amant, of Staunton, of Der Lasa, of Szen, and Kieseritzkij. Moreover, with a Chess

Museum before us like the present, we can equally adjust the claims to renown presented by the great living players of all the countries of Europe, opposed on the Chess-field in arms to each other. Petroff and Janisch in the frozen north—St. Amant, Calvi, La Roche and Kieseritzkij in their sunny France—Heydebrand Der Lasa, Szen, Lowenthal, and Bledow of Germany—Perigal, Staunton, and Daniels in London town—all pass severally in array before us, like soldiers on parade, or beauties at a court drawing-room.”

This is the proper tone of enthusiasm, and Mr. Walker is one of the few English players living who has the right to use it. He places Mr. Staunton at the head of that select few, and is probably right. But there are not many men, in his position, that would have offered the first rank so freely.

With what a pleasant ardor he also speaks of Mr. Cochrane. This royal and venerable war of chess is certainly the most humanizing of the military sciences.

“Of Mr. Cochrane it may be said, with greater truth than Johnson writes of Shakspeare, that ‘he lost the world for a quibble, and was content to lose it.’ Mr. Cochrane could have been the Philidor of the age; *but would not*. His ardent temperament, as a Chess-player, runs away with his judgment; disdaining to track a beaten path, even if certain victory present itself in the vista of the route. Mr. Cochrane's banner bears for its device, ‘Attack, attack.’ Attack at all risk—attack at every cost. Mr. Cochrane is the most brilliant player I have ever had the honor to look over or confront; not even excepting De la Bourdonnais; and pity it is that his very brilliancy so often mars success. Mr. C.'s game may be compared to the very dashing charges made by the Mamelukes at the Battle of the Pyramids; when they impaled themselves, horse and man, upon the bayonets of France.”

Mr. Walker's *Chess Studies* are in ten chapters: of which the first four are devoted to the most celebrated games of De la Bourdonnais, M'Donnell, and Philidor; the fifth to Philidor's contemporaries; the sixth to Mouret's clever artifices with the automaton-player; the seventh to the best games by correspondence; (this is a very interesting section;) and the remainder to the highest efforts of general modern play, both at home and abroad. The last chapter, with its subdivision of sections illustrative of the various openings, and of the game in all its stages, is in itself, as we have said, a complete encyclopædia of chess reference.

Every student and lover of this fascinating game should possess himself of Mr. Walker's book.—*Examiner*.

THE letters and despatches of Nelson are at length about to be collected and published, in a form corresponding with Colonel Gurwood's celebrated work, “The Wellington Despatches.” The task has been undertaken by a gentleman, Sir Harris Nicolas, whose previous publications are strong evidence of his fitness; indeed, we should have some difficulty in fixing upon one better calculated, from talents and industry, to accomplish the object, and we therefore appeal to all who are in possession of letters and other documents to come forward and assist Sir Harris in the completion of a work of such vast national importance.—*Naval and Military Gazette*.

THE "STRONG WIND" IN ST. MARTIN'S CHURCH.

PUNCH has the pleasure to record an interesting event which occurred on Tuesday, the 9th instant. NOT-EN-A-AKM, or "the Strong Wind," interpreter of the Ojibbeway Indians, was married to SARAH HAINES, which name, translated into the Ojibbeway language, means "the London Fog." The ceremony was performed in St. Martin's Church. The Ojibbeway Indians attended, and, with a fine sense of the struggles of matrimonial life, appeared in their war-paint.

Some folks have grumbled at this union; they know nothing of history. The truth is, as we will prove, we owe a large dividend of wives to American savages, and SARAH HAINES, or "the London Fog," is only the first instalment of a long-standing debt.

In April, 1613, PRINCESS POCAHONTAS gave her maiden hand to JOHN ROLFE, "a discreet young Englishman." Yes; "in the little church of Jamestown," says the historian, "which rested on pine columns fresh from the forest, and was in a style of rugged architecture, as wild, if not as frail, as an Indian wigwam," did the beautiful Virginian savage become MRS. JOHN ROLFE. This event happened two hundred and thirty-one years ago, and we have been in debt to the Indians ever since. We put it to MR. HUME, or any other subtle arithmetician, to calculate the amount of our liabilities. Multiply one wife by two hundred and thirty-one, adding thereto compound interest on the accumulating amount, and our debt to the savages must be something very serious. However, we have begun, though in a small manner, to liquidate it; we have given "the London Fog" to "the Strong Wind," and trust that Pennsylvania bondholders will take example by our honesty.

We have a superabundant female population. This fact is on all hands allowed and deplored. We see an easy remedy for this. Let parties of Indians be imported. Let us have samples of the Chippewas, the Dog-Ribbed, the Sioux, the Choc-taws—indeed, a company of every tribe of wild men, from Hottentots to Greenlanders—and let them be let loose in our various towns for the sole purpose of captivating the hearts, and so carrying away in lawful wedlock, our superabundant females. By this means we shall honestly liquidate our long-standing debt to the savages, and shall, at the same time, relieve ourselves of over-populousness. War-paint, glass beads, tattoo-work, and tomahawks, have a sweet and proper influence on the female mind. What says the splenetic *Philip Van Artevelde*?

"———the women's heaven

Is vanity, and that is over all.

What's firest still finds favor in their eyes;

What's noisiest keeps the entrance of their ears;

The noise and blaze of arms enchants them most.

Wit, too, and wisdom, that's admired of all,

They can admire—the glory, not the thing.

An unreflected light did never yet

Dazzle the vision feminine."

From which caustic philosophy we may gather this fact, that a savage, to be considered "quite a love" by a civilized maiden, must first be exhibited in front of the lamps.

However, as the romantic devotion shown by Miss SARAH HAINES, or, "the London Fog," for NOT-EN-A-AKM, or "the Strong Wind," will doubt-

less become a fashion among our too susceptible countrywomen, we only perform a public duty in enumerating a few of the accomplishments required by a North American Indian of his wife or squaw. She tills the ground, she digs, she sows, she reaps: she pounds the parched corn; she dries the buffalo meat; she carries home the game that her husband kills; she hews wood and draws the water; she builds the wigwam, and in times of journeying carries the poles upon her shoulder. Think of this, young ladies, and say whether it is not more pleasant to hatch canary birds in white satin, and work puppies' heads in Berlin wool? However, for the ruder and more picturesque operations, "the London Fog" is, doubtless, duly prepared; and, therefore, let us return to the sacrifice of the bride, "attired in flowing white," with a "wreath of orange blossoms circling her hair," in St. Martin's Church.

The ceremony was particularly solemn. When "the London Fog" was asked if she would take "the Strong Wind" for her "wedded husband," she replied "*I will*," with an emphasis that showed she had duly weighed the responsibilities of hewing, and delving, and shouldering the wigwam poles. "The Strong Wind," in the most charming way, took the ring from his nose, and placed it on the finger of "the London Fog." He then in the "most graceful manner" kissed his bride, to the satisfaction of everybody, "the London Fog" included. MRS. ELLIS, we were happy to perceive, was in the church, and in the handsomest manner presented to MRS. "STRONG WIND" *The Wives of England*, bound in hymeneal white satin; with a copy of her forthcoming work, entitled *Can Woman make a Lobster-Salad*?

It will particularly gratify our female readers to learn that "the Strong Wind" has promised "the London Fog," on their return to America, to take no other wife, but to remain constant, "solely to her." Should "the Strong Wind" break this pledge, of course "the London Fog" will have the readiest redress at any of the Ecclesiastical Courts to be found in the back woods.

When the bridegroom led the bride to her carriage, there was a shout from the multitude, evidently meant as an approval of the fine moral courage of a young lady, who gives up the sickly refinements of civilized life for the invigorating comforts of savage existence. When the carriage drove off, the crowd shouted again, and the crowd was right; for "the Strong Wind" had carried away, for good and all, "the London Fog."

"The Strong Wind" exhibited himself with his friends, the Ojibbeways, the day after his marriage; and it says much for the liberality of the keeper of the show, that the public were allowed to see the bridegroom without the charge of an additional sixpence. "The London Fog" was to have been visible at the Egyptian Hall, but was prevented by her friends. She ought to have exhibited; it would have been in complete keeping with the pure taste that dictated the marriage.

It is only due to MR. RANKIN, the showman, to observe that he managed the wedding with a fine eye to all advertising purposes.—*Punch*.

We have reason to believe that his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias will arrive in this country on a visit to her Majesty in the course of a few weeks. The Emperor is expected about the second week in May.—*Times*.

THE NEW-MARRIED OJIBBEWAY INDIAN.—Though we do not usually interfere with matters of a private nature, yet a case of so peculiar a character has been brought to our notice, that we are induced to give the statement publicly, with the hope of drawing forth a satisfactory explanation of the circumstance. A correspondent informs us that Mr. Rankin, who brought over and is now exhibiting the Ojibbeway Indians, and who used his influence to promote the marriage of the interpreter of the party, Cadotte, to a respectable young female, desired the bride to remain in the room with the Indians to render the exhibition more attractive. On her declining to do so, he dismissed, so our correspondent asserts, Cadotte from his party, and the poor Indian, without employment or finances, is now left destitute with his newly-married wife on his hands. We give this statement as it has reached us, with the view of eliciting a satisfactory explanation. We have, of course, no feeling in the matter, and can bear Mr. Rankin no ill will. But, if the facts be as stated, he certainly owes it to himself and to the public, who have largely patronized this singular and interesting exhibition, to publish some justification of his conduct.—*Britannia*.

QUICK TRAVELLING.—A few days since, her Majesty's packet, Princess Alice, having on board Mr. Robins, an English messenger, arrived at Dover, from Calais, after a passage of one hour and forty-five minutes. The messenger was just in time for the eleven o'clock train, in which he took his place, and arrived at London at three o'clock; performing the whole distance from Calais to the metropolis, *via* Dover, in the unprecedented short time of five hours and forty-five minutes!

GALVANIC TELEGRAPH.—The first intelligence of the arrival of his Royal Highness Prince Albert, from Germany, on Thursday week, was communicated to her majesty at Windsor Castle, by means of the galvanic telegraph on the line of the Great Western Railway. Within one minute of the arrival of his Royal Highness at the Paddington terminus, the information had reached Slough, at which station a special messenger was stationed by command of the queen, who proceeded with the intelligence to the castle, where he arrived in eight minutes and a half from the time of his leaving Slough.

THE DISTRESSED NEEDLEWOMEN OF LONDON.—A grand concert in favor of the funds of the Society for the Protection and Employment of the distressed Needlewomen in London, was given last night at Covent-garden theatre. A more deserving object for the sympathies of the public than the unfortunate class for whom they were appealed to on this occasion cannot be imagined; and after all the eloquent appeals and the heart-rending disclosures of which they have of late been the daily object, it was not only a matter of regret but astonishment to find the house presenting the miserable aspect which it did. This cannot be imputed to the want of enticement in the programme, for certainly it was in every respect an attractive one, embracing the names of Ernst, Moscheles, Madame Dulcken, Parish Alvars, Madame and Signor F. Lablache, Miss Romer, and Miss S. Flower. A very full and effective orchestra was also in attendance, and in every respect the arrangements were such as, considering in addition the main object of the concert, would have justified a far different anticipation. In the course of the evening, Hood's "Song of the Shirt," which has been admirably set to music by Mr. J. H. Tully, was sung by Miss Romer. That the funds of the society can have derived much benefit from last night's enterprise cannot be expected; let us hope that they may shortly be increased by a more direct application of public charity.

GOVERNESS' BENEVOLENT INSTITUTION.—The first anniversary festival in support of the funds of this charity was celebrated on Saturday, at the London Tavern, the Duke of Cambridge in the chair. The report showed among the subscribers, her majesty the Queen Dowager, £20; the noble chairman, £20; the Duchess of Gloucester, £10. The total amount was £1052 18s. 6d. During the evening many toasts were given. We feel pleasure in calling the attention of our readers to an institution for the comfort and relief of aged, infirm, and destitute governesses.

The King of Naples has appointed a commission of twenty-two members to collect and prepare for publication all the remarkable unpublished manuscripts connected with the history of his territories, which are to be met with in either the public or private libraries. It is supposed that the labors of this commission will, owing to the immense number of manuscripts, continue from twelve to fifteen years.

CHRISTIAN SEPULCHRE.—It is stated that a number of Christian catacombs, supposed to be of the earliest age of that faith, and the first ever found in Greece, have been discovered near Milo.

CREDULITY.—In the villages around Wakefield, for some time past, many of the poorer inhabitants have firmly believed in some vague prophecy that the world was to have been at an end on last (Good) Friday. As an instance of this, a man residing at Lee-fair, a week or two since, actually killed two pigs, his property, and distributed the pork amongst his neighbors, in order that they might "eat and be merry," before they died!

SYRIAN MEDICAL AID ASSOCIATION.—On Wednesday a public meeting was held at the Hall of Commerce in aid of the above association. Lord R. Grosvenor presided. The association originated about two years ago with a few benevolent individuals who were impressed with the wretched condition of the inhabitants of the land of Palestine as far as medical relief was concerned, there not being a single resident qualified practitioner either in Palestine or Syria, which countries had a population of about two millions. An agent was sent out, in 1842, to Beyrout, in the person of Dr. Thomas Kearns, whose success rendered the practicability of the undertaking no longer problematical. During the first year of his residence he relieved no less than four thousand two hundred and ninety-eight patients, including many difficult and important surgical operations, performed to the satisfaction of all parties. The Dispensary House at Beyrout is beset at all hours by persons of every denomination, who are anxious to obtain advice for themselves or relatives. Many have to traverse the rocky regions of Lebanon, a distance of thirty or forty miles; whilst others come even from Damascus, because in that great city, although there is a population varying from one hundred and twenty thousand to one hundred and fifty thousand, there is not a single medical man who is worthy of their confidence; those who profess "the healing art" being either charm-venders, magicians, or adventurers. The following is given in a letter from Dr. Kearns, as a happy illustration of the state of Syrian surgical practice:—"A man fell from a walnut-tree, a height of thirty feet; his arm was broken, and his body severely bruised. On taking him up, the people instantly killed a sheep, and, stripping off the patient's clothes, wrapped him up in the warm sheepskin, (the fleshy side inwards,) broken bones and all, like a mummy! I saw him twelve hours after the accident, and he was then steaming in his new dress. Hearing who I was, they very gladly availed themselves of my services; and I left them quite satisfied with a more enlightened plan of treatment." The claims of the institution were ably advocated by the chairman, Mr. Buckingham, Dr. Croly, and others.

From Bentley's Miscellany.

THE OMEN.

A LEGEND OF BERGEN-OP-ZOOM.

BEFORE the bombardment of Bergen-op-Zoom,
 (Not the fatal attack when Skerret and Gore,
 Macdonald, and Carelton, and numberless more,
 Were lost to their country, and plunged us in
 gloom;) But the siege when, old Cumberland acting as hat-
 holder, Maurice of Saxony warr'd with the Stadtholder,
 Still, as the fire of his batteries got more range,
 Redoubling the cry of—"No quarter to Orange!"—
 So that, when the poor city surrendered,—'t was
 sack'd Which seems a great shame, and is called a great
 fact!—

Well,—before THAT bombardment of Bergen-op-
 Zoom, In one of the aisles of its stately cathedral,
 To all English travellers, a wonderful tomb
 Was specially pointed to note by the beadle.—
 And the moment the eye of the stranger espied it,
 Though others more showy by half stood beside it,
 Every monument there, whether urn, bust, or slab,
 he Held cheap, as the tombstones in Westminster Ab-
 bey, Which headless and dusty, look shockingly shabby :
 Or St. Paul's, where on payment
 Of twopence a head,
 In a temple to pray meant
 They peep-show the dead ;
 Where beadle and verger
 So cruel a scourge are,
 And keen Dean and Chapter
 To screw one so apt are,
 That Sir Christopher Wren would their *robbing* dis-
 own, Could he do in St. Faith's what he pleased with his
 own.

On marble Archdukes
 In flowing perukes,
 A Dutch burgomaster
 In pure alabaster ;
 Electors in steel, and
 Archbishops of Zealand,
 All mired and crosiered,
 (You 'd fancy their prose ye heard,) People listlessly gaz'd, like the cockneys who go
 To stare at the wax-work of Madame Tussaud,
 Stiff as pokers or pikestaffs, and ugly as sin,
 Lord Palmerston,—Nap,—and Commissioner Lin!—
 But awful to view was the wonderful tomb,
 Beside the high altar of Bergen-op-Zoom :
 Its emblems mysteriously hinting a doom
 That might take out the shine in cadaverous gloom
 Of the tales of Monk Lewis, Ann Radcliff, and Co.,
 Once the popular authors of *gens comme il faut*.—

To remind us that fragile as glass human fate is,
 A lesson old Time still imparts to one gratis,
 It bore the sad text,—"*VANITAS VANITATIS*!"—
 And the emblems,—I shudder in writing the tale,—
 Were a skull on a looking-glass,—*parti per pale* :—
 The technical term may be wrong :—of Sir Harris
 Exactness in matters heraldic the care is ;
 But the objects were plac'd,—as your forefathers saw,
 Sir,—
 The skull like a teacup,—the glass like a saucer.—

Such a blazon announc'd to the prosy and dull,
 Not a crack in the glass, but a crack in the skull,—
 Till the terrible legend was told to its ending.
 But a moment for breath, if you please! 'T were
 like blending

Ash-Wednesday in sackcloth with loose *Mardi Gras*,
 if We touch'd on such horrors without a new para-
 graph!—

By the Frith of Forth
 In the canny North
 Once dwelt a noble man ;—
 Brave, braw, and spruce
 Was young Lord Bruce,
 A farthing of Queen Anne!—
 The gamesome and the gay among,
 He bore away the belle ;
 But belles, alas! can wag a tongue
 Their right to rings to tell ;
 And when some blustering brother talks
 Of Mantons and eight paces,
 Even fighting Smith, or doughty Dan
 Or Lady Sale, or Cardigan,
 Or valiant Jack, the Cornish man,
 Might wish he dar'd to walk his chalks
 And ne'er had seen their faces!—

However, Lord Bruce was so general a favorite,
 That, do what he would, 't was the vote of the
 Lords,

'T would be their *own* loss were he sent to the grave
 for it,
 So they sheathed their toledos, and swallow'd their
 words.

'T was the time when from Scotland King Jamie the
 First
 Brought his naked and hungry, our treasures to
 bone here,
 And a cat-and-dog sort of affection was nurst
 'Twixt the courtiers of England and stout Caledo-
 nia!—

Mid the proudest at court
 Young Sackville was seen,—
 A champion for England
 A knight for a queen :—
 Like Bayard the Spotless,—of chivalrous France a
 star,
 Or the *preux* of our *own* time, to whom he was an-
 cestor,
 Cantilupe,—last of the Dorsets, whose bays
 Crown'd heroes and bards in Elizabeth's days,—

Now Sackville detested the Scotch, and protested
 That Bruce, who just then with his sister was
 flirting,
 If he show'd but his nose in the house, for pro-
 posing,
 Should be seiz'd by his vassals, and tumbled the
 dirt in,
 Wherever they jostled,—no matter the spot,—
 He muttered the insult of—"beggarly Scot!"—
 And Bruce, though 't was hard his emotions to smo-
 ther,
 Had not e'en the resource to retort—"you're an-
 other!"

A Scotman's devotion *pro aris et focis*
 As the love of the Swiss for their fatherland, close is ;
 So that Bruce thus rev'il'd, though averse to the ac-
 tion,
 Was forced in the end to demand satisfaction.

But as luck will'd, King Jamie, "their gossip and
 dad,"
 Got a hint of the business, and swore with an
 oath,

"If he heard of a meeting between 'em, egad!
 He 'd settle in Newgate the hash of them both."—
 To the London police
 He gave them in charge,
 Rehearsing the piece
 Of the "Prisoners at large,"—

But they turn'd on their heel, and
Set sail straight for Zealand,
With seconds and surgeons
To act in emergency;
And landing at Antwerp, upon the Escaut, Sir,
Agreed they would fight the next day, at Tergosa.—

'T is unpleasant to draw
On one's brother-in-law :
And that night, when in bed
Lord Bruce laid his head,
And thought of the sorrow
Might chance on the morrow ;
Having supped on sauer-kraut
Pumpnickel and stout,
In which Dutchmen delight,—
He was tortur'd all night

By a nightmare, just such as one dreams in one's
flurry
After seeing Macbeth done to rags at the Surrey !—
And awaking at daybreak, "used up," and af-
frighted,
Beheld what was worse than ten nightmares united !

In that province, where webbed in the foot man and
beast are,
A mirror is plac'd in the beds for a tester ;
Like a looking-glass stuck in a comfit-box lid,
Multiplying by two what must else have been hid,—
And making the snoozer snooze double,—too bad, O,
My Wordsworth,—to jest on thy Swan and its Sha-
dow !

Therein of course Lord Bruce expected
To see his night-capp'd face reflected ;
But lifting up his eyes,—(the wind
With hideous moanings howled the while,—)
Behold a human skull thence grinn'd
Most horribly a ghastly smile !—
Oh, omen dire,—Oh, omen dread,—
His face transform'd to a death's head !—

He fainted not, nor call'd for aid
From waiter, or from chambermaid :—
But softly to himself he said,
"I'm a 'gone' coon !—All's up with me !—
My doom is settled—Q. E. D."—
As though by Babbage prov'd, or Whewell,
A victim pre-ordained, he knew well
That adverse fate, with purpose cruel,
Had sworn to pink him in the duel !—
So, having wash'd and said his prayers
He took his sword and walk'd down stairs.

In the record George Sackville has left of their fight,
To prove to all England he was not a scamp,—
He tells us distinctly it rained in the night,
And the meadow they fought in was wretchedly
damp.

He felt but the damp to his feet from the grass,—
But the damper of Bruce was the skull in the glass !
And dazzled and desperate, he rush'd like a fool on
His foe,—in a style that would shock Monsieur Cou-
lon.

From the right breast of Sackville the blood flowed
in torrents,
But though pale as a portrait of Canning by Law-
rence,

He rallied his strength with a wrench and a start,
And ran his antagonist straight through the heart ;
The surgeons drew near,—'t was no manner of use !
As the omen foretold, all was up with Lord Bruce !

The great Earl of Clarendon tells us this story,
And Steele in the Guardian has placed it before ye ;
But both have in silence the ghost of the skull,
As an old woman's tale of a cock and a bull.—

Though, when to Culross in process forlorn
The heart of the dead, cas'd in silver was borne,
By his mother those emblems were plac'd on his
tomb

Beside the high altar of Bergen-op-Zoom.

MORAL.

The moral of this dread event
Should be inscrib'd on brass ;
Refrain, young lords, on conquest bent,
From looking in the glass !

FREE TRANSLATION OF "THE LITTLE FRENCH-
MAN'S FIRST LESSON,"

*Inscribed, with high admiration of his genius, to M.
de L——, Poet-in-Chief to the "Paris Charivari."*

(MAMA LOQUITUR.)

COME and hear me tell,
Little soldier mine,
Of those Ogres fell
Who on Frenchmen dine.
It will make you mad ;
It will turn you blue ;
Little martial lad,
Little Frenchman true !

Car ce sont-là des perfides Albionnais !

Men who will not fight
When their neighbors taunt,
Yet who thrash us quite
Soundly, when they want :
Those audacious tars,
Morning, noon, and night,
Little son of Mars,
Hold in mortal spite !

Car ce sont-là des perfides Albionnais !

Curse thou, boy, Poitiers,
Creçy, Azincour,
Blenheim, Talavère,
And a hundred more—
Only Fontenoy—

Name that comes so pat,
Little martial boy
Make the most of that !

Bah ! ce sont-là des perfides Albionnais !

Who burnt JOAN OF ARC
(The butcher ! nay, the baker !)
Recent deed and dark ?

Who stormed John of Acre ?

He ! The Englishman !

Be it still thy joy

Him to curse and ban,

Little Christian boy !—

Car ce sont-là des perfides Albionnais !

They our Hero shut
Under bolt and lock—

In a wretched hut,

On a wretched rock :—

Poisoned there his food,

Every pot and pan,

Roasted, boiled, and stewed,

Little martial man !

Car ce sont-là des perfides Albionnais !

Till, of all bereft,

That great heart was still ;

And he died and left

An affecting will ;

Whereon was impressed

His imperial soul,

By a meet bequest—

Child, go read the scroll !

Ah ! ce sont-là des perfides Albionnais !

ETC., ETC., ETC.

Punch.

GREAT MEETING OF SHERIFFS' OFFICERS ON LORD CAMPBELL'S BILL FOR ABOLISHING IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT.—Wednesday last a meeting of Sheriffs' Officers was held at the *Fleece*, for the purpose of taking into consideration the injurious tendency of Lord Campbell's Bill, now before Parliament; a bill which, if matured into an act, will entirely abolish imprisonment for debt, and thereby strike a fatal blow at the interests of a most meek and self-denying race of men, the servants of the Sheriff. The room was crowded by officers distinguished for their service, together with their humbler followers and meaner dependants. Mr. Solomon, amidst great applause, was called to the Chair.

The Chairman, with the choicest flow of language, and with that elegance of manner, which could only be acquired from a long and intimate knowledge of the aristocracy, opened the business of the day. He called upon those about him to be up and doing. Lord Campbell's Bill menaced their very existence as men, as citizens, as wine-merchants, as coal-merchants, as money-scriveners. If they loved their homes—if they valued the sanctity of their bankers' books—if they would not see the bars at their windows made worthless old iron by Lord Campbell—they would defeat so base, so unholy a tampering with a time-honored law, (*Cheers*)—a law under which the British Constitution had attained its present palmy condition—a law under which Eldon had grown gray and Wellington had conquered! (*Vehe-ment cheers.*)

Mr. Levi rose to move the first resolution. He said they had borne more than enuff. Bit by bit hall their profits had been cut huff; and now they vos threatened to be done hup entirely. He vos a young man he vos, but he vos hold enough to remember the days when an onest hoffer could make his twenty pounds afore breakfast, by bail-bonds. Them days vos gone—(*Groans*)—gone for hever. He eld it for a truth that the law of arrest vos to society vot an oop vos to a cask; it eld it together; take away the oop, and would n't there be a tumblin about of the staves? (*Loud cheers.*) Lord Campbell had a good deal to answer for. (*Hear.*) How he could sleep on his pillar with that bill in his ed, he (Mr. Levi) could n't tell. Some men, however, had no art; and he was afear'd Lord Campbell vos one on 'em. (*Cries of "he his—he his."*) The bill vos a great blow at public credit. (*Hear.*) For how, he should like to know, would anybody trust anybody if he could n't have the pleasure of locking him up? Lord Campbell's Hact would make bill-stamps vaste-paper—would utterly destroy the discount trade, and make the veeds grow in the court-yard of the Halbany! (*Cries of "Shame," and "Ve von't stand it!"*) The doing away vith arrest on Mesne Process vos bad enuff; but let Lord Campbell carry his bill, and adoo to the onest profits of the hindustrious hoffer—adoo to the vine-trade—adoo to the coal-business—adoo to everything. He saw nothin afore 'em but to go down to the lowest pint of hinfamy, and keep a play-house. (*Sensation.*)

Mr. Nathan briefly seconded the resolution. He would bleed in defence of the law as it existed; and he knew very well—no man better—what bleeding was!

Mr. Lazarus, an elderly gentleman of venerable aspect, and very Roman nose, next addressed the meeting. He had been door-keeper for twenty years at a most distinguished spunging-house in Newman street; a house made celebrated by the men who had enjoyed its hospitality. Ha! the happy, blissful days he had spent there in the good old times of Ellenborough and Eldon! Then, law was a manly sport, and worth something; now it was nothing but child's play. In his days, too, the law fostered such beautiful family feelings; drew son so close to father—brother to brother! For instance; the son, a wine-merchant, at some hundred per cent., *did* the bill; this he paid to

his brother, the attorney, who employed his father, the bum-bailiff, who employed another son, broker and auctioneer, to walk in and sell up. Then a debtor, every bit of him, might be devoured by a whole family, and not a small bone to spare for anybody else. But only pass Campbell's Bill, and what's the debtor worth? Nothing, except to his creditors; they get all he has, and the lawyer and the bailiff are robbed and bamboozled. (*Loud cheers.*) He remembered the time when a sheet of paper sold in a spunging-house for a shilling. Now, the same article was to be had for two-pence. (*Shame!*) He would propose that the Duke of Wellington should be intrusted with their petition; his grace having, with that large humanity which distinguished his statesmanship, actually advised a remuneration for Sheriffs' Officers on the passing of a previous act. Mr. Lazarus concluded by moving the second resolution.

Mr. Cox was only too happy to second the resolution. The bill was a most mischievous and wicked bill, for it went to suppress, if not entirely to destroy, the best feelings of human nature. (*Hear, hear.*) He would prove it. For instance, you locked a man up, and if he himself had nothing, why, nine times out of ten, his imprisonment was made a tax upon his relatives and friends, who then, at any cost, came forward to help him. Abolish arrest for debt, and these beautiful feelings are suffered to sleep, unknown to all parties. Hence, the act contemplated by Lord Campbell was a wrong done upon the human heart. It was smothering its noblest emotions. (*Hear, hear.*) The question to be resolved was this:—Were the expenses now paid to the Sheriff and his officer to swell the funds for the mere creditor? If such was to be the case, England would no longer be the home for the noble and the free. (*Loud cheers.*)

Other distinguished officers severally addressed the auditory, proposing other resolutions (expressive of unrelenting hostility towards Lord Campbell's Bill,) which were passed, and the meeting broke up; nearly every man present singing in loud and animating chorus the celebrated Hebrew chant—"No more shall the children of Judah mourn!"—(*Punch.*)

BEAU BRUMMELL'S STATUE, TRAFALGAR SQUARE.

PUNCH has received exclusive intelligence of a subscription which is now quietly growing at White's, at Brookes's, at the Carlton, and other Clubs, for the purpose of erecting a statue to the memory of George Bryan Brummell, the man who invented starched neckcloths, and gave its newest gloss to blacking. The sculptor, whose name we are not at present permitted to reveal, has sent in a drawing of the contemplated statue.

Trafalgar Square has very properly been selected as the place for the erection. There again will dwell in kindly neighborhood George the Beau and George the Fourth. Their lives were lovely, and their joint memories will be appropriately eternized in congenial bronze. The grandson of the pastrycook and the descendant of the Guelphs will be reconciled by the good offices of posterity, and the peculiar virtues that each possessed be brought out in stronger relief by the association. Looking at Brummell, we shall remember, with glowing admiration, the "man who never failed in his tie." Beholding George the Fourth, we shall not readily forget the man to whom all ties were equally indifferent.

Many and deep must be the reflections suggested by the two statues.

George the Beau, by the force of his genius, made himself the master of a Prince. He taught Wales "what a coat was like."

George the King, wanting royal blood, might have made himself master of journeyman tailors.

George the Beau, in beggary, refused to sell the letters of his former friends.

George the King, when Prince of Wales, sold his party at the first profitable opportunity.

George the Beau had wit.

George the King had only malice.

George the Beau would make a joke for the joke's sake.

George the King "hated without cause, and never forgave."

George the Beau felt compunction for his starving "washer-woman."

George the King ran half a million of money in debt, and, sending his bills to be paid by a starving people, felt for no one.

We might go on with the parallel, but believe we have said enough to show the great beauty of contrast that must be revealed by the juxtaposition of Beau Brummell and the "Fat Friend." It is whispered at some of the clubs, that, in addition to the Beau's statue in Trafalgar Square, there will be placed there the *vera effigies* of another of King George's early companions; namely, that of the lamented Marquis of Hertford. There will still be wanting another statue for the one vacant corner. How is this corner to be filled? At present we remember no person worthy of the post. Yes, we have him: Nicholas Suisse!—*Punch*.

THE PATRIOT'S ADDRESS TO HIS COUNTRYMEN.

My countrymen! Liberty calls you,
She gives you an Irish broad hint;
Arise and respond to her watchword—
"Be sure and remember the Rint."

Long time have oppressors enslaved you,
Who never thro' pity ralint;
But now is the hour of deliv'rance:
Be sure and remember the Rint.

Your tyrants still wish to enthral you,
Their hearts are as hard as a flint;
You may laugh them to scorn and despise them,
If you only remember the Rint.

My countrymen! Victory 'waits you—
Bright Fame, in a glorious tint,
Will paint forth your actions in story:
Be sure and remember the Rint.

Your fathers have fought and have conquered,
Their names are recorded in print;
So eclipse their bold prowess in battle:
Be sure and remember the Rint.

Your hands shall be freed from the tyrant,
Each nero be rich as the mint;
What blessings and comforts await ye,
If you will but remember the Rint.

What foe can expect to oppose ye,
Or the growth of your power to stint,
If you only will do what I tell ye,
And be sure to remember the Rint?

For myself he may send me to prison,
I scorn his ferocious intent,
And I care not a straw for his malice,
If you will but remember the Rint.

In this glorious cause I have labored,
For this my best days I have spint,
You cannot now mean to forsake me.
Be sure and remember the Rint.

Oh! son of this great, this *green* island,
I only just give you a hint,
That I always will stick to my country,
If she will but remember the Rint.—*Punch*.

IMPORTANT—TO THE LADIES. The great success which the "Strong Wind" has met with in the lottery of wedlock, has induced his companions in arms and paint—the Ojibbeway Indians—to advertise for English wives; and as the said Indians are very shortly about to leave the country, early applications on the part of the ladies are desirable. The Indians have already at least one wife, but they promise, even as "Strong Wind" promised, to remain constant to their new helpmates; a promise which, upon their return to the back woods, they will doubtless most honorably perform. We subjoin the advertisements:

No. I. "AH-QUE-WE-ZANTS—the Boy Chief. The advertiser is in his seventy-fifth year, and shall be happy to form a matrimonial engagement with any English lady of known property. The Boy Chief, in his admiration of the martial character of England, will have no objection to the widow of a general officer, if under forty. Her property must not be secured upon herself. She must know how to cure bear's flesh, to hoe, and rake, and dig, and reap. She must also be able to skin rabbits and clean pipes. Principals only treated with. Apply from 10 to 12.

"N. B.—The squaw must have been vaccinated.

No. II. "PA-TAN-NA-QUET-A-WER-BE—the Driving Cloud. The advertiser is the War Chief, aged 51, of a remarkably placable and humorous disposition. He has no objection to treat with a young English lady; and will, on a marriage settlement, secure to her all his scalps. The young lady must have been tenderly and affectionately brought up, as she will have to carry the wigwam poles of the Driving Cloud upon all journeys. She must bring a sufficient income to keep her husband in tobacco, rum, and laziness. English securities preferred: no holder of Pennsylvanian bonds will be treated with.

No. III. "WE-NISH-KA-WEA-BE—Fly Gull and Hereditary Chief, is open to the offers of the ladies of England. Having inherited his dignity, not won it by any deeds or virtues of his own, advertisers are confidently referred to the *Ojibbenay Peerage*, 4to. The birth of the Flying Gull will not allow him to treat with anybody below a baronet's daughter."

GISH-E-GOSH-E-GHEE, the Moonlight Night, and SAH-MA, Tobacco, in the most unblushing manner, also forwarded their advertisements; but as *Punch* discovered them to be both married men, with their wives here with them, he, with his known devotion to the proprieties, has of course refused to insert any such invitations to the connubial state.—*Punch*.

LATE KING OF SWEDEN.—"Yesterday the body of the late king was clothed in the costume of the Order of the Seraphim, and placed on a catafalque erected in the hall of the palace bearing the name of that order. The features of the illustrious deceased are not, in any respect, altered. The body is to remain there in state for a week."

RUSSIA AND CIRCASSIA.—A letter from Trieste says, "By our last arrivals from Constantinople, we learn that Russia has fully succeeded in her appeal to the Porte on the subject of the Caucasian mountaineers. The Porte has not only given all the assurances required of her, but has promised to put a stop to the contraband trade with the coast of Circassia. This trade has been carried on by the Turks, the Ionians, and the Greeks, and by the two latter under the Turkish flag, and even under that of Russia herself."

DEATH OF W. BECKFORD, ESQ.—The demise of this gentleman took place on Thursday morning, at his residence, Bath. The deceased, who was in his eighty-fourth year, was the father of the Duchess of Hamilton, and was distinguished by his literary attainments. He was formerly proprietor of the celebrated seat, Fonthill Abbey.

NEWS OF THE WEEK.

From the Spectator, May 4.

BUDGET.—The great annual exposition of our financial state, the Budget, has been presented to Parliament; comprising also some little reduction of taxation, and the foretaste of an important modification of the sugar-duties. As a money account it is gratifying: the past financial year witnessed a gross surplus of revenue over expenditure of more than £4,000,000, or, after paying the deficiency on the previous year, £2,400,000; and making other deductions, there is an available surplus of £1,400,000. The skill or prescience of ministers in estimating their resources and the productive powers of the taxes under an improving state of trade is impugned, and justly; but, luckily, the error is all on the right side: the estimate of the revenue fell short of the actual yield by £2,700,000; the estimate of the expenditure exceeded the actual payment by £650,000. Possibly the improved financial policy of government may, by conducting to these results, have helped to falsify their own predictions; good fortune must have done more; but an error is easily overlooked when the disappointment is only pleasant. The Chancellor of the Exchequer is not over head and ears in debt to the Bank for current cash; and he talks boldly of being independent of that convenient yet burdensome ally. There is advantage as well as novelty in this sound state of affairs; witness the recent operation on the Funded Debt, by which a very considerable annual saving of interest has been made—and more may be effected in the same direction by means of overflowing coffers. The Budget, as far as it goes, justifies the policy of 1842; the revenue, especially the Customs revenue, has improved, and might seem to warrant an extension of it. Mr. Goulburn, however, only ventures on a very small and very timid observance of the principles then laid down, with reduction or abolition of duty on flint-glass, currants, wool, and some other minor matters. The wool-duty is well got rid of; but its abolition provokes new hostility to the impolitic duty on cotton. The sacrifice to Free Trade is small; but, small as it is, the movement is kept up.

THE RECALL of Lord Ellenborough by the East India Directors has been the subject of much speculation, and of a characteristic avowal on the part of the Duke of Wellington; who declared that the acts of the Governor-General had his thorough approval, and that he held the recall to be a proceeding of the grossest indiscretion. Lord Ellenborough's success as an amateur general has quite won the veteran's heart, and he can perceive no ill equal to the removal of the man that played with armies so well. The Duke of Wellington, ever straightforward, has outlived that period of life when men are very solicitous about what will be thought of them, and he speaks without stint. Cautious Sir Robert Peel behaves in an opposite fashion, and questions fail to draw from him any explicit assertion of opinion. The Duke even reserved all reasons for his opinion; so that no one knows why he thinks the East India Directors so indiscreet, nor yet why Lord Ellenborough is recalled. His unpopularity with the officials in India, his retrenchments, his aggressive policy, and other reasons, have been guessed at. It says little that his unpopularity was diminishing; still less, that he was resting after the second game of

aggression, for the directors could not well have stopped him in the midst of a game. Whatever the reason, government and the directors are quite at issue upon it; and it is from the merchant-princes of Leadenhall street that the Peel-Wellington Ministry has as yet received its severest and most mortifying check.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT.—Some measures of special domestic reform have been before Parliament. The most important, and the successful one, is a bill introduced by Lord Cottenham, altogether to abolish imprisonment for debt at any stage; consolidating and assimilating the bankrupt and insolvent law, enabling the debtor to obtain an effectual discharge from his liabilities on an honest cession of his goods, and a creditor to compel the debtor to make that cession; thus giving to either party the power of taking the initiative. Fraudulent debts—that is, as we understand it, the obtaining goods for which the purchaser cannot and does not mean to pay, under the false pretence of contracting a "debt" for them—will be an offence for trial before a jury and for substantive punishment as a fraud, apart from the question of mere debt. The measure is another step towards that "free trade" in credit which would be the really sound system. The laws of debtor and creditor act as a protection to improvidence on both sides: relying on the law to back him, the vender scarcely considers his customer's means of payment, extent of purchases, or personal character—expecting to supply by process of law his own want of caution: the purchaser thus attains a spurious credit, which under a system of purely personal reliance would be beyond his reach; and if improvident, he measures his purchases not by his own means but the vender's confidence. If the law refused to furnish a guarantee to the dealer, except as against positive fraud, credit would come to be tried by the only efficient tests, substantial means and honest name.

A LAW QUESTION, one of those that have only been opened, is of a larger kind. Lord Brougham has introduced a bill which consists of a digest of the statute and common law in matters of crime and punishment—in fact, a code of criminal law. The bill was read a second time; it is to be examined by skillful persons during the recess; and next session Parliament will take it up again, finally to deal with it. As to the branch incorporating the statute law, there seems, from what Lord Chancellor Lyndhurst said, to be no doubt that it will be enacted, with the concurrence of Government. Some doubt is expressed as to the expediency of meddling with the common law; and it may be regarded as standing for more mature deliberation, with a probability of success on that point also. The delay is not to be looked upon as mere procrastination: the measure is far too important to be suffered to run the chances of partial frustration by mistakes and flaws in its very substance; and the only certain method of turning out a code, sound and complete as a whole, is to let it be circulated in print, and carefully scrutinized in every part by the best intellects—by men learned in the law, and all other competent students and thinkers, undisturbed by the chatter of Parliamentary "discussion." To take a session more to the great work, matters little with a measure that may signalize a generation. But it must not be allowed to sleep.—*Spectator*, May 18.

TEXAS.—The startling announcement has reached London, that a treaty to annex Texas to the United States has actually been concluded—ay, sealed and signed! But stay—it has yet to be ratified by the Senate; so that the impudent manoeuvre may be stopped, or at least delayed. By losing its grossness vice loses half its evil; and some years hence, by being less palpably a flagrant offence, the absorption of Texas into the Union would become really less wicked. The case of this state is known to all the world; it has arisen before the eyes of the generation now living. Texas is a Mexican province; American citizens migrate into it, upon sufferance; they grow to be a majority, or at least the most powerful class in that province; they declare themselves “independent;” and now they wish to be taken back into the Union, as American citizens, along with the Mexican territory! It is as if the English in Boulogne were first to declare themselves “independent,” and then to offer to annex Boulogne to England.” In the very same way, if Mexico were hospitable to foreigners, the whole of the Mexican republic might be decoyed into the Union. The success of the measure, however, is doubtful. It is suspected to be an electioneering ruse of John Tyler, anxious to curry favor with the populace, in hopes that he may be forced to accept another term on the republican throne. It is only wonderful that Mr. Calhoun should have lent himself to the trick. Luckily, however, there are other political leaders: Mr. Henry Clay, the chosen representative of the Whigs in the approaching election for the Presidency, has forcibly denounced the plan; and Mr. Martin Van Buren, the chosen representative of the Democrats, also deprecates it: reflecting and rational men of “the two great parties in the state,” therefore, are ashamed of consummating the spoliation with such barefaced haste; the Senate is likely to revise Mr. Calhoun’s diplomacy rather unfavorably; and then the treaty will be rejected. Some day, probably, Texas, in the nature of things, must be “annexed;” but time to forget Mexican associations—time for witnesses of the trespass to die off—time for a little further insight into the social nature of slavery and of the Negro race—is due to decency, before another slavery-tainted star be added to the “star-spangled banner.”—*Spectator*, May 18.

SIR ROBERT PEEL ON THE CURRENCY.—The second great monetary measure of Sir ROBERT PEEL’s life, the complement to the bill of 1819, was promulgated on Monday. We had some difficulty in believing the anticipations of others early in the session, that he would suffer this opportunity to pass without that revision of the Bank charter which must otherwise have been postponed for ten more years; and while gossips were speculating on his inaction, the minister must have been maturing his pre-determined plan. It was kept so close, however, that even to the last but a very faint notion of it got abroad; and the want of foreknowledge as to his intention imparted to his speech, as he developed his plan, even in so dry a matter as a currency measure, a kind of dramatic interest. The interest lost nothing by his manner of treatment; which was in his happiest style. The few great compartments of his subject were broadly and distinctly marked out; the details, rapidly but lucidly touched, fell into their proper places; so that, while every part was as clear as glass, the relations of the whole were easily kept

in view; and the animated choice of expression, with the strictly practical bearing of the whole, gave to so abstract a subject the character of action. You felt that the speaker was arranging not mere banking-accounts, but national deeds and events. He began by laying down principles. First, he defined the common denomination of value, a “pound;” which means nothing else but a certain quantity and quality of the precious metals—a known *thing* which is adopted as a measure of the value of other things, and not some abstract standard of positive value. Discussing this point, he achieved an easy victory over the “Birmingham” currency-men, his old controversial antagonists. He was very successful in drawing a distinction between those instruments of transfer from specified individuals to individuals, bills of exchange or such other species of paper credit, and promissory bank-notes payable to any bearer on demand, which are real substitutes for money; the distinction is, that bills of exchange represent debt, bank-notes represent coin. His business was to show that the two kinds of paper exercise different influences on the state of the currency; and that measures affecting one kind need not affect the other, as some had pretended. He proved from evidence of country bankers, that the portion of the paper-circulation which consists of country bank-notes is not regulated by considerations of what is best for the public, but is dilated or contracted according to the opportunities offered to the banks of “custom” in their trade; in time of speculation, therefore, impulse is given to over-trading by the extraordinary facilities of obtaining this kind of money; and the consequence is, that the gross amount of money in the country is ever indefinite and irregular in amount, and uncertain in value,—certainty and regularity being the two essential qualities of a proper currency. It has been observed that at this part of his speech there was an hiatus, and that Sir ROBERT PEEL passed from his principles to his practical measures without explaining their necessary connexion. We believe that this characteristic will be found in all his notable speeches, and that it is a trait of his own mind. He is not an original reasoner, nor a bold inventor. With great perceptive powers, he masters the reasonings of other, and with great practical experience and *nous* he contrives a way to give effect to his adopted principles; but, lacking the original logical faculty, he cannot so well explain how the measures grow out of the principles. He leaves that for commentators; who may write for years about what he will do in a session, after he has once made up his mind. You may find the same sort of hiatus in his tariff speech, and many others. His measures are not the inevitable conclusions of his premises—often the inevitable conclusion is something larger; but, allowing for his good journeyman-maxim of working with the instruments ready to his hand, you will generally find the measures pat enough as far as they go. In the present case they go a long way. He takes the existing metallic currency as being all that it is wanted to be; and his grand object is to place the paper currency in as definite and distinct a position as if it issued from the mint and bore its weight of gold stamped upon it. To that end he remodels the Bank of England. It is to be divided into two departments; one to be a bank of issue, and nothing else. Its issues will be made upon two bases, securities and bullion. The securities are to be defined,—a debt of £11,000,000 from government

to the Bank, a kind of government stock to serve as a guarantee for that amount of notes; and £3,000,000 of Exchequer Bills and other public securities, not so permanently fixed; together, £14,000,000. The other department of the Bank will be an ordinary bank—the great bank of the country; managing the public debt, and serving private customers. Bullion deposited in this bank will be transferred to the issue-department in exchange for notes. The issue-bank will have the power within its own hands of contracting its circulation to the extent of the £3,000,000 variable public securities; it will be allowed to extend its circulation on emergency, with the consent of three ministers—probably the First Lord of the Treasury, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Master of the Mint. In the dilation or contraction of the currency based upon bullion-deposits, the bank must follow the action of the public. Great security and confidence will be produced by the weekly publication of full accounts. An analogous process is ingeniously applied to the multifarious brood of country banks. The banks of issue are to be restricted to their present number—there are to be no more new banks of issue; the notes are to be restricted to their present amount—no bank is to issue more notes than it now does on an average of years; and the amount of such circulation is to be publicly recorded. The maximum amount of the country paper-currency is therefore to be fixed henceforth. Should any sudden deficiency occur in it, as by the cessation or failure of a bank, the Bank of England will apply its power of extending its own circulation; the profits of such extension to go to the public exchequer. Along with these new restrictions go some facilities and improvements for ordinary banking: joint stock banks are to have the privilege of suing and being sued; they are to be bound by the acts of authorized partners, but not of unauthorized partners; in the metropolitan circle they are to issue bills of short date; they are to publish lists of their partners and directors; in the case of new establishments, they must obtain the assent of government, and register prospectuses and other papers. Regarding the measure as a whole, the business of banking is placed on a more certain footing; and the business of issuing paper-money is made distinct, with provision for its gradual absorption by a central body,—a committee of the Bank of England virtually contracting to do the work of a government department in performing the function of a paper-money mint. The total amount of money, metallic and paper, will thus be an ascertained and centrally-regulated quantity; and the “standard of value” will possess as much steadiness as possible.

This great scheme has been received with varying impressions. Some object that it will “make money dear,” and deplore that the minister does not alter the standard of value, as it has often been altered—by swindling sovereigns—since the days of WILLIAM the Conqueror; as if, says Sir ROBERT PEELE, we gain anything in the thing measured by altering the nominal number of inches in a foot! It is remarked more justly, that in our complicated system the disturbing influences are too many to permit the result to be seen at once. But it is anticipated that the great change will be effected with singularly little detriment to private interests; and on the whole, except among “the currency-people,” the scheme is regarded as a very statesmanlike measure.—*Spectator*, May 11.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH.—The ugly-looking imbroglio between the government and the East India Directors has been settled in the quietest and most effectual manner. This victory over difficulty may stand by the side of COLUMBUS's egg for simplicity and tact on the part of the cool-headed politician at the head of affairs. There was the Court of Directors in unanimous contumacy—a most respectable and decorous rebellion; there was the most respected Duke of WELLINGTON, with all the plain-speaking indiscretion of a man who has survived petty restraints, openly scolding the Directors, without warrant to show for it—the warrant must not be shown; there was Lord ELLENBOROUGH rising in the stormy horizon in his retrograde movement, from his horrid hair shaking interofficial pestilence and war; and the invidious Whigs and mischievous Radicals already began to call for “papers.” A general blow-up seemed inevitable. Sir ROBERT PEELE tackles the difficulty. He is silent when his colleague gives tongue. He sees and soothes the excited Directors. He yields to their move, now past remedy; and proposes Sir HENRY HARDING as the new Governor-General. Happy thought! Sir HENRY happens to be “the very man” the Directors desire; he is brother-in-law to the offended ELLENBOROUGH; brother-in-arms and most trusted companion to the outspoken Duke; inoffensive to the blatant beast of party. All is quieted. The Duke of WELLINGTON disavows any intention to offend, but thinks that his silence was deemed injurious to the impugned functionary, and feels bound to defend his absent friend; his escapade thus assuming an air of chivalrous generosity forgetful of official etiquette. People would pardon more serious lapses to the honest veteran, and they rather enjoy the opportunity of exercising towards so illustrious a trespasser the patronage of forgiveness.

TOPICS OF THE DAY.

POWERS OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.—The Duke of Wellington pronounces a decided opinion on the conduct of the India Directors in recalling Lord Ellenborough. This the public cannot do, for want of that information which “discretion” forbids the Directors to furnish without the consent of the government; but there is a point connected with the subject upon which no doubt can exist. We mean, the unfairness of a public censure, by so very high an authority, of men whom the accuser himself deprives of the means of defence. Nor is the injustice of this proceeding the only objection to it. The weight of the Duke's opinion on most subjects is so great, that people are apt to take for granted the correctness of his mere dicta. In the present instance, a mischief ensues which may not be easily remedied. There is at this moment a tendency in public opinion, produced entirely by the Duke's speech against the tongue-tied Directors, to conclude that the East India Company itself is a bad institution. Some go so far as to say that it ought to be displaced by a Board or Office for the government of India. This sudden judgment may not hold, perhaps; but at all events the question is much discussed, and is one of immense importance. On this question, therefore, in the absence of all means of forming an opinion on the particular act of the Directors, we offer some brief remarks.

The main objection that one hears urged against the Company as a means of governing India is,

that such an institution is "anomalous." Anomalous in what respect?—as being contrary to rule, or contrary to practice? A mere closet-statesman, having to frame a government for India, would probably never have hit upon the scheme of creating a joint stock, and letting the shareholders of that private money-interest choose twenty-four of their own number to be the rulers of a great empire: but on the other hand, a statesman of practical ability, or even a true philosopher, (meaning one who observes the divers peculiarities of nations, and who takes into his account the genius of the people for whom he has to plan institutions,) would not fail to perceive the thoroughly English character of delegations of authority, for special purposes, resting on a private interest. Our Indian empire was founded by this means: so were the English colonies of the West Indies; and the thirteen great colonies of North America, which might still have formed part of the British dominions if a centralizing spirit here had not interfered with their charters of incorporation and local government. Within these islands, again, and time out of mind, a vast number of public purposes, which in other countries the supreme authority undertakes, and often fails to accomplish, have been attained by means of conferring power on bodies distinct from the central authority. The principle of such delegations of authority runs through our institutions; the plan of creating special interests armed with special powers, and maintained in independence of the supreme executive, is just what most distinguishes England from such countries as France or Prussia. Nay, it is good old English constitutional law, that not even the Supreme Legislature can alter a charter of incorporation without the consent of the grantees. A keen centralizer may exclaim against the "anomaly" of making any authority independent of the supreme legislature; but even such a one must allow that good has come of it in by-gone times, when Parliament itself was more apt to do wrong than in these days; and at any rate, nobody can doubt that the peculiar self-reliance of the English character, and our practical ability in every kind of affairs, have been in a great measure produced by the habit of exercising authority and bearing responsibility,—a habit which these countless delegations of power for special purposes have mainly occasioned. Many an old English house is very "anomalous" in its variance from the rules of architecture, but none the less useful or comfortable. As these were built in disregard of rule, but suitably to climate and notions of comfort, so our corporations, enjoying power independent of the general government, have manifestly worked well. They may, indeed, be according to rule after all: for is not adaptation to working well the best of rules to go by?

In favor of the particular case of the East India Company, there are many special reasons. Among the chief of these we should be disposed to place the great objection to Mr. Fox's India Bill,—that it was an attempt by the Whig landed aristocracy to lay hold of the patronage of the government of India. The present system of patronage in that department of the state may be "anomalous;" but surely that is a pleasant departure from rule which prevented Mr. O'CONNELL from naming India among "the colonies" in which he undertook to get a place for Mr. EDWARD RUTHVEN. Then, look at the *working* of patronage by the Court of Directors of the East India Company: reckon all

the jobbing, and still the system stands alone in the regular training for official aptitude which it supplies, and in the production of a body of administrators with which no other in the wide British empire will bear comparison. The present mode of proceeding averts two great evils,—first, that of the vastly augmented power of corrupting the House of Commons and the constituencies, which a "Colonial Office" for India would place in the hands of the landed aristocracy; and secondly, that of the incompetence of the officials whom the great Whig or Tory landlords would send to India if political influence disposed of cadetships and writerships. Who can believe that the private interest of politicians in the management of constituencies would work as well in this case, as the private interest of the shareholders of the Company in keeping up the value of their stock?

This brings us to the rationale of a stock-holding interest invested with governing power. The device seems peculiarly applicable to the government of a distant possession which is really incapable of self-government. Its object is to create responsibility where none exists. The proverbial mismanagement of the Colonial Office would show, if the fact were not obvious and notorious, that these islands contain no public sufficiently large and sufficiently interested in the well being of any distant possession, to bring home responsibility to its rulers. "Who cares about India?" is a common saying. In some colonies, such as Canada, we create a local responsibility by means of representative institutions: but whenever a distant country is governed here, so surely the ignorance and indifference of the British public with respect to that country saves its rulers from any real responsibility,—excepting only in the case of India. The East India charter makes a public here, moved to keep the directors in order by a strong private interest in the good government of the distant possession. The scheme is not even anomalous, but according to the excellent rule which considers responsibility essential to good government. And again we say, it works well. Could as much be predicated of a Colonial Office for India, such as that which keeps the other dependencies of Britain in a constant state of depression or disturbance?

We cannot help thinking that the discussion as to the propriety of conferring powers of government on the East India Company will do much good. A Doctrinaire school of politicians has grown up of late years in this country, which regards the principle of centralization with great favor, and bestows as much dislike on the old English practice of local and special exercises of authority. It is well that we should look about us in this matter. The new Poor-law, which rightly created a central authority for the purpose of curing the social disease resulting from the payment of wages out of taxes, has suspended our whole system of parish-government, and threatens to destroy it. The condition of the working peasantry, between whom and their employers all sympathy has been removed by the institution of Union Workhouses and Boards of Guardians, is not so satisfactory as to make us deeply in love with the new method. Other cases might be cited, in which we appear to be pushing the principle of centralization somewhat too far. The Prussian mode of government is as unsuitable to this country as houses built after the model of Greek temples. We shall have to return to the subject.

—Spectator, May 4.

THE MIRROR OF THE AGE.—If posterity judge of the present age by its newspapers, they will form a rare opinion of it. Every newspaper consists of two branches—the news, and the argumentative departments. Among the news, the rascalities of life occupy a most disproportionate space. The steady, unobtrusive exercise of the domestic virtues—which is more largely and uniformly distributed through society than in any former age—is the commonplace of life, and affords no salient points to the news-caterer. But the adventures of Lord HUNTINGTOWER and the swindling leeches who clung to him—the Marquis of HERTFORD's "voice from the grave" bearing testimony to the character of NICOLAS SUISSE—the will-forgeries, poisonings, adulteries, stabbing of sheep by clergymen, *et cetera*—these fill up the news-columns as attractively as their dramatized versions do the minor theatres. The rottenness of life is sought out by the newsmonger as the rottenness of cheese is by the epicure. Its *haut gout* overpowers the faint, delicate odor of good lives. It is painted with such breadth that it seems to overspread the whole fabric of society. And when we take the newspapers in their lecturing vein, matters are but little mended. We find, it is true, champions of religion, morality, and liberty—denouncers of oppression, of sedition, of dishonesty—all laboring away with a three hundred horse-power: but the very excess of their energy is suspicious—one is tempted to exclaim, what a spring-tide of villainies of all kinds it must be that sets in with such force as to call for all these Mrs. Partingtons to sweep it back! The inference suggested by this state of affairs is at least not a cynical one. If our age and country—which, with all their littleness, have rather more than an average share of decorum and benevolence—show to so little advantage in the pages of its chroniclers, may not a similar fate have befallen other ages also? In reading the history of Rome under the Emperors, for example, one wonders how a society so unreddeemedly profligate could hang together. The fact that a large amount of insipid but invaluable domestic virtue is hidden from our view by the exaggerated declamation of reformers on the one hand and the brazen-faced ostentation of shameless profligacy on the other, solves the difficulty. The literary artists of CALIGULA's and NERO's days seized upon the telling points of contemporary society; they gloated on sarcastic or indignant descriptions of vice, and deepened the coloring of popular debasement and servility, in order to make their virtuous characters tell more effectively from the contrast. But in the domestic circles of Rome there must have been a large amount of average honesty—too tame for their exaggerated tastes, but still the salt of the earth, which preserved the body politic from corruption. The same was the case, doubtless, in every age famous for its profligacy. The dissolute courtiers of CHARLES the second in England, and of the Regent ORLEANS in France were the minority of the society in which they lived. And even in the blood-drunken fit of the French Revolution, the majority of the people went about their daily avocations with that routine regularity which subdues men to something very like virtue if it be not the exact reality. If all the mad politicians on every side who kept cutting each others' throats for a few years in La Belle France, had been by some sudden fatality annihilated, a vast majority of the French people would have survived—very common-place people, doubtless, but also

very comfortable people to live among. So, after all, we may charitably hope that human nature is not quite the rascally thing history would lead us to believe.—*Spectator*.

THE ADJUSTMENT OF THE CIRCULATION.—The propositions of Sir ROBERT PEEL on Monday last are marked by the great merit of carrying out a comprehensive principle without disturbance of any existing interest. Henceforth, the paper circulation of the country will be subject to no other fluctuations than those to which it would be liable if instead of being the representative of gold it were gold itself. As an economical substitute for the precious metals, it will perform precisely the function it professes, and no other.

In any alteration he might propose, Sir ROBERT PEEL had to select from the doctrines of three different schools: the first, by no means an influential one although obviously attractive to some peculiar minds, consisting of those who seek an "expansion" of the currency—i. e. the issue of inconvertible paper—enabling them to discharge obligations contracted to be paid in the scarce commodity gold, with a commodity, the "scarcity" of which would only be limited by their ideas of what is convenient; the second, maintaining the necessity of a convertible currency, but insisting that the fact of an issuer of a note being bound by law to meet it in gold renders it impossible for him to over-issue—just as if a law decreeing that men shall keep their promises would render it impossible for them to deceive society by promising more than they can fulfil—and insisting that therefore no restriction should be placed upon him; and the third, claiming not only a declaration from the law that all notes shall be convertible, but also a provision to insure that the gold into which they profess to be convertible shall have a local habitation in the cellars of the issuer, so as to render it quite certain that each note is really what it purports to be, the "representative" of something having a tangible existence.

Upon the last of these systems the premier has taken his stand. There could indeed have been little doubt that such would have been the direction of any measure Sir ROBERT PEEL might bring forward; but the largeness of the principle was supposed, under the present constitution of the banking establishments of the country, to involve almost insuperable difficulties, and few were prepared to find that the whole matter might be effected without causing the slightest derangement. The new plan will go into operation without involving any change in our present monetary relations; and yet at the same time that it disturbs nothing, it completely insures a sound system for the future.

To show its simplicity, it is best to state it in an elementary way. The paper circulation of the country may be taken at the present moment at about thirty millions, exclusive of the reserve held by the Bank of England against deposits. If that sum were certain to remain in England in use as at this moment, it would be sufficient that it should be based on securities having a merely national value—such as Stock, Exchequer Bills, &c.; and no occasion for convertibility would exist. But when an increase of imports shall take place, and heavy payments to foreigners consequently become necessary, the holders will send in a large proportion of it in exchange for the security on which it

is based, and which, to meet such a call, should evidently be of a kind possessing not a local but an universal value. Now, the greatest extent to which it is believed a demand of this description could ever go, is to eight millions from the present amount, so as to reduce the circulation of the country from thirty to twenty-two millions; any drain approaching to this extent being held certain to produce a fall in prices, and a general pressure sufficient to turn the exchanges in our favor. Since, therefore, the paper circulation of the country can never fall below twenty-two millions, it is permitted that the various banking establishments now possessing power of issue may issue in the aggregate to that extent upon other security than that of gold, it being next to certain that gold will never be demanded for it: but as it is possible that all beyond this amount may be sent in at any time, it is provided that no more shall be issued except upon a deposit of bullion, so that the notes may be guaranteed by that commodity which when the holders bring them in will be wanted in exchange. The Bank of England are therefore allowed to keep out, as at present, fourteen millions of their notes, represented by profitable securities, and the joint stock and other banks eight millions: this will make the twenty-two millions of national circulation, and the amount of notes of the Bank of England now out upon bullion will alone be subject to fluctuation. As gold flows in, the amount of notes will be increased; as it goes out, notes will be brought in in exchange, and forthwith cancelled—an unprofitable operation, to be conducted as heretofore by the Bank in consideration of their privileges.

But as it is possible that some of the joint stock and private issuing banks may fail or withdraw, and the circulation on securities thus become contracted below the twenty-two millions, it is provided that in such case the government may authorize the Bank of England to advance on securities an amount of notes to supply that which has been extinguished by such failure or withdrawal; the public to pay the expense caused to the bank by the additional issue, and to take the profit arising from the interest of the securities upon which it is made.

As far as the interests of the Bank of England are concerned, it is clear that it will gain an advantage from the stability given to its operations, to say nothing of the future freedom of its banking department. We observe, however, that some of the proprietors complain of a “hard bargain;” but on this point the arrangement between the minister and the governors of the bank seems to have taken place in a spirit highly honorable to both, avoiding all haggling and chaffering in a desire to promote a great national good. That the terms are just, is evidenced by the prices-current. Public opinion as to what the bank might fairly expect was indicated by the price of the stock before Sir ROBERT PEELE divulged his plan; and so completely has he hit the estimate, that the quotation from that time has not undergone the slightest variation.

THE AUTOCRAT'S VISIT. More than a month ago, it was positively announced that his most Autocratic Majesty, the “Self-governor” of all the Russias was to pay a visit this summer to her Britannic Majesty. But shadows of doubt and delay appear to be now thrown over this flattering prospect.

“The present state of the Queen,” says a diplo-

matic writer in the *Times*, “will very shortly preclude her gracious Majesty doing the honors of her palace.” Then, “material obstacles” are hinted at, “arising from the melting of the ice;” and moral obstacles from “urgent affairs on hand.” In short, it is apparent that there is a hitch somewhere; and moreover, that the real cause of the Czar drawing back from his journey is not discreetly to be named, while a plausible pretext is not easy to invent. Oh no, it is not the heat melting the ice in Russia, that is the hindrance; it is the moral coldness congealing a less destructible ice here.

All hope, however, is not extinct in the breasts of those who are curious to see foreign kings and other rarities. Lord BLOOMFIELD, who proposed a visit to St. Petersburg, is detained, lest the Emperor should arrive and find no field in bloom. This is hard upon Lord BLOOMFIELD: could not his office be delegated for the occasion to Lord DUDLEY COUTTS STUART, who might do the honors with a peculiar grace to the Sovereign of Poland? Or perhaps Baron ROTHSCHILD, or Sir MOSES MONTEFIORE, out of gratitude for the favors their nation have received at the Imperial hands, might undertake the task. A body-guard of Polish exiles may be enrolled to mount guard at St. James's while the Czar remains; and of course all Houndsditch and St. Mary Axe will be illuminated on the night of his arrival!

Seriously, the Emperor of Russia is “an accident,” as his better brother said of himself: he is what his position has made him—but that is not a thing to be admired. If he insist upon coming, of course our Queen will receive her guest as her own sense of hospitality and dignity demand; and every attention will be paid to him by our nobility and gentry, which official connexion with the Court may require. But it is to be hoped that, on the part of the independent and right-feeling public, the customary lion-worship will be abated. It would be well that the persecutor of the Jews and destroyer of Poland should be made to understand that he is among a people who cannot respect him, though they have too much self-esteem to treat even an uninvited and unwelcome guest with rudeness.

From the Examiner.—Opposition.

THE BANK PROJECT.—Sir Robert Peel's plan for improving the banking system is now before the country, and every feature of merit in it will, we may be sure, stir up a proportionate hostility where present interests, real or imaginary, are supposed to be affected by it. The opinions of the best authorities, on the question are generally in favor of the scheme, and the minister is much, and we think justly, commended for the boldness of his measure, as well as for the general soundness of the principles on which it is founded. Objections attach to parts of the plan, but on the whole it is entitled to much praise, and will connect the name of Sir Robert Peel with a lasting service to his country.

From the Examiner, 11 May.

It is rumored that England is to be honored this summer with a visit from the Emperor Nicholas. Now, as we regard the unbought cheers and hearty welcome of a free people as the highest honor any sovereign can receive, the noblest tribute to beneficence and virtue, we are not a little loth to see them wasted on one who can never appreciate or deserve them as the autocrat of Russia. Great pains

are taken by a portion of the English press—no doubt with very sufficient reason—to mystify the people of England as to the true character of the Russian Government.

We shall give a simple authentic fact, which will enable our readers to judge of the tone and temper of the Czar's government; the baseness of its ends, and the lawlessness of its means.

An ukase dated the 27th of March has just been issued, by which the *annual* tax upon every passport granted for any foreign country whatever, is raised from 50 to 200 silver roubles, that is, to £30 of our money. Nor is this all, the same ukase contains an absolute prohibition on all foreign travel as regards all persons of either sex under 25 years of age, unless such as accompany their parents or guardians. To crown all, the governors of provinces or cities can no longer, as heretofore, grant passports. Every passport must be issued direct from the Imperial Chancery at Petersburg to the remotest parts of that huge empire—with what facility, despatch, and economy, we leave our readers to judge. Illness, commercial affairs, or the profession of an artist, form the only exceptions.

Of course everybody understands the meaning of these prohibitions. Not contented with all he has hitherto done to withhold his subjects from contact with higher civilization, not content with his endeavors to disqualify them from comparing what they witness at home with what they might see abroad, he has now taken a bolder step in the career of intellectual oppression. He appears to aspire to erect around his empire the barriers which his neighbor the Emperor of China has just been compelled to throw down. We can hardly think he will long succeed. Already this measure has excited throughout Russia the greatest disgust and indignation.

We call the attention of the English public to it, because it throws some light on the pretensions of such a ruler to be the civilizer of his people.

From the Britannia.

Monarchs do not always know their own minds, and the changes of imperial and royal council on the subject of the visit to Queen VICTORIA have, for the last three months, distracted the whole *grande monde*. The Czar, a splendid specimen of the locomotive, vibrates between Melton and Mesopotamia, and is evidently uncertain whether he shall run up the Thames, or head the march of an army across the Araxes. LOUIS PHILIPPE oscillates in the same style between the picnics of the Isle of Wight and the police-protected peace of Neuilly. The British public would, as the Lord Mayor's Stentor, Mr. O'TOOLE, hails his guests when the "loving cup" goes round, "greet them both, and give them heartily welcome." Yet, if we were of the Cabinet of the King of the FRENCH, we should advise him to stay where he *can* be protected, which certainly would not be the case in England. The royal life is of value to much more than France: he is the pledge to Europe against the rashness and wretchedness of war. In France he is fortunately guarded from the hand of the assassin. But, if he visited this country, some French conspirator might fatally avail himself of the unguarded condition in which he must move about here, if he moved at all, and destroy a life the most important to Europe. In this language we but speak the opinion of the public. The king is brave and knows how to face peril; but

there is neither courage nor common sense in challenging unnecessary risks, and the grief which would be felt by our country, and the mischiefs which might accrue to every nation of Europe, by such a catastrophe, would infinitely overbalance any pleasure which England might feel in showing its hospitality to a great king and a great man. But the Czar would be secure: his hazards would be much more from our welcome and his own waltzing than from any of the

"Chances that make rough the path of kings."

LAW REFORM.—This is the condition to which the law of every great nation must come in the lapse of centuries. New laws or modifications of old laws are called for by the altered circumstances of society: every question submitted to the decision of a court of justice has something peculiar to itself that calls into exercise the ingenuity of the judges in applying to it the general terms of the statute law. Many cases occur that must be decided more by a general analogy than by the letter either of the statute or the consuetudinary law. It is an inevitable necessity that the law—the customs of the country, the enactments of the legislature, the judgments of law courts—must increase in number and complexity with every year. And this process cannot fail in the course of time to render those authoritative sources of legal knowledge so multitudinous and voluminous, that unless some remedy be adopted the law must break down under its own weight; the nation must lose the benefit of a definite and cognizable law, from its law having outgrown the powers of human comprehension.

Two kinds of remedies have been proposed. The favorite panacea in our days has been a perfect philosophical code, that should render unnecessary the constant accumulation of statutes and decisions. Such a task could only be performed by omniscience: but the impossibility has not deterred from making the attempt. BENTHAM had his codes ready cut and dry to offer for the acceptance of every state from the North American Union to Russia. And the Code Napoléon has been held up in its day as something of the kind. It is indeed a fair specimen of what may be expected from any such attempt. That a number of explanatory statutes, of judicial decisions, and of ingenious commentaries, have already been superadded to it, is no disparagement to the Code Napoléon: the exigencies of society, and of such laws as fallible human beings can make, render this constant growth inevitable. But the true ground for adjudging the Code Napoléon a failure is, that owing to its incompleteness and vagueness—the consequence of its being compiled by theorists who had no sharp practical knowledge of the law—it is a bad starting-point for this inevitable accumulation of supplementary enactments, applications, and explanations. Its superficial vagueness infects the whole apparatus that has been constructed upon it.

The best specimen of the other kind of remedy that has at times been applied to law become useless from excessive growth, is to be found in the compilations of JUSTINIAN. The two principal books (the *Institutes* are a mere elementary text-book for learners) are exactly what the Common Law Commissioners were directed to prepare. The "*Codex*" is a digest of what may be called the statute law of Rome, which was actually in

force in the time of JUSTINIAN. The "Pandects" are a digest of what may be called the common law of his time. They are neither more nor less than the law of JUSTINIAN's time as it was known to TRIBONIAN and his few assistants. The knowledge which their work shows these accurate and learned lawyers to have possessed of the best enactments, decisions of judges, and opinions of counsel, of their own and preceding ages, was amply sufficient for practical purposes. The Emperor's decree that their digests should have the force of law—that all statutes, decisions, and opinions to be found in them, and none else, should be authoritative—removed the danger to which we are daily and hourly exposed, of judgments pronounced in favor of the party whose lawyer has drawn the lucky ticket in the lottery of decisions. That decree at the same time reduced the valid law within such a compass as rendered a thorough and intimate knowledge of it on the part of practitioners possible. And by the judicious determination to give merely the law as it was—to attempt no impracticable idealization of it—all the sharp-defined forms, all the practical common sense which men trained in real business had impressed upon and inspired into the Roman law, was retained. And the consequence has been, that the law-books of JUSTINIAN were not only an inestimable boon to his own time and nation, but have been the source of much of what is most valuable in the law of every nation of modern Europe.

Digests of the statute and common law of England, executed on a principle analogous to that upon which TRIBONIAN compiled the law-books of JUSTINIAN, appear to be what is most desirable in the present state of our law. A digest of the most important acts of Parliament, and a digest of the most important decisions and opinions, such as is understood to have been prepared by the Law Commissioners, revised, corrected, and augmented by lawyers like Lords COTTENHAM, DENMAN, and LYNTHURST, would be a satisfactory body of law. It would be within the compass of the studies of men of average talent and industry to obtain a thorough knowledge of it. It would insure men against the danger of supposed obsolete statutes or forgotten decisions being raked up against them. It would not render explanatory or emendatory statutes, or reports of the decisions of courts, or text-books and commentaries on special branches of the law, unnecessary; but it would for the time bring back the whole of the law within the sphere of human comprehension; and when the necessary course of events had made the law again too exuberant, the same process of retrenchment might again be adopted. We do not regret the caution evinced by Lord LYNTHURST respecting the immediate adoption of the digest of statute and common criminal law embraced in Lord BROUGHAM's bill; but we could have wished a more decided and hearty expression in favor of the principle of consolidation. What the country most urgently requires is to know what and where the law is. Reform—improvement—will doubtless be required; but let us have a law: at present, from its sheer redundancy, we have as good as none.

Honor to whom honor is due. To Lord BROUGHAM are we mainly indebted for whatever steps have as yet been taken in the course we have indicated as most desirable. The inquiries of the Common Law Commissioners originated in

his motion in 1828; and the commission directing them to extend their investigations to the Criminal Law was issued when he was Chancellor. He has taken charge of—produced to public notice—urged the adoption of—the digest of the criminal law prepared by the Law Commissioners. He has urged upon the ministers the introduction of the digest as a legislative measure of their own; and, failing in this, he has invited the attention of his own House of the Legislature to it. He has by his perseverance awakened a certain degree of public attention and extorted some show of action from government; and if by further perseverance he carry his point, he will confer a benefit upon the country, the extent and importance of which it is not easy to estimate. In that event, he may allow his enemies their small triumphs at hitting the weak points he frequently exposes to their aim—the weighty obligation he confers upon the nation will overshadow them all. It may be said of him, that as a learned and sound working lawyer he was excelled by many of his judicial cotemporaries: it may be said of him, that he could not have compiled the very digest upon which he seeks to build his fame: but it will also be said, that had it not been for the impulse he gave that digest would never have been undertaken, and had it not been for his unflagging enthusiasm it would never have become law.

Spectator.

MORAL PROSPECTS OF THE UNITED STATES.—It is true that our Transatlantic cousins are more prone to talk about than actually to engage in war; but as the pitcher which goes often to the well comes home broken at last—as the boy cried "wolf" till nobody believed him, and yet the wolf did come—this habitual bluster and rhodomontade may lead to mischief in the end. It is not denied that we have senatorial and extra-senatorial Bobadils here at home quite fit to pair off with those of the United States, and perhaps in number scarcely inferior; but, thanks to something in our form of government or our state of society, they rarely get into the Cabinet, and are always in a minority there.

Mr. President TYLER's advocacy of a crooked policy regarding Texas would be, like the Irish Repeal sympathies of Mr. President TYLER's son, simply ludicrous in a private individual fighting "for his own hand:" but when the chief magistrate of the Union concludes a treaty of annexation with a republic founded on the territory of a neighboring and allied state by citizens of the Union—many of them of rather questionable character—it is time to stop laughing and look after our own property.

It depends upon the American Senate alone to prevent as shabby a violation of the laws of nations as ever was committed by the worst of the old Kings and Kaisars, against whom the freemen of North America hold themselves entitled to rail in the gross. Mr. CLAY's protest against the TYLER policy is honorable to himself and the party he represents: it shows that some of the old blood of the WASHINGTONS and ADAMSES still circulates in the land. But it cannot be forgotten that Mr. CLAY is the mouthpiece of a party which, with one or two brief intervals, has been in a minority ever since the election of THOMAS JEFFERSON as President. Mr. VAN BUREN's qualified protest is infinitely less satisfactory than Mr. CLAY's—just as Mr. VAN BUREN is himself in every respect a less satisfactory sort of person. Mr. VAN BUREN,

it is true, points out the dishonesty and danger of the TYLER policy; but the wind-up of his letter reads vastly like a hint to the Americans, that though he disapproves of annexing Texas, rather than not be President he will consent if they insist upon it. The wavering virtue of Mr. VAN BUREN, and the long-standing minority of the class of statesmen represented by Mr. CLAY, are not encouraging auguries of what is to be expected from the Senate; although that body, like the Supreme Courts of Justice of the Union, has hitherto made a noble stand against the low principles of policy which have found favor in the eyes of the rabble of electors.

If the Senate yield on the question of Texan annexation, our turn will undoubtedly come next. This is more than inference from the applicability to Canada of the immoral principle upon which the Texan treaty is justified. Some of the trappers, whose friends and allies have been urging the Legislature of the Union to seize upon Oregon, it is credibly reported, have already established an organized settlement within the disputed territory. This has all the appearance of an exact repetition of what has been done in Texas. First, a body of unrecognized adventurers form a settlement; then, they are recognized as *de facto* an independent state; and lastly, they are incorporated into the Union. In the Texan treaty, and in the Oregon settlement, we may read what awaits us if TYLER principles and TYLER partisans carry the day in the pending Presidential election and obtain a majority in the Senate.

To us it is no agreeable prospect, to be dragged into war by the unprincipled encroachments of a kindred people. But the citizens of the United States will themselves be the greatest sufferers. We do not, indeed, anticipate, with some, a near dissolution of the Union. There is enough of *esprit de corps* among the States to reconcile the citizens of New York to a common course with the repudiators of Pennsylvania and Michigan; the anti-slavers of Boston with the CALHOUNS, who look upon the occupation of Texas as nothing but a just and necessary step in defence of the sacred institution of negro slavery; and all to take pride in extending their territory by violent or fraudulent appropriations of what belongs to neighboring powers. It must be a virtuous, a happy society, in which such principles are unblushingly avowed! It is not in the American Union as in the Monarchical States of Europe. On this side of the Atlantic, a line has been drawn between the statesman and the citizen class, which, whatever anomalies it may have occasioned, has at least had the good effect of keeping domestic life comparatively pure from the lax principles of politicians. In our domestic circles a stricter morality has prevailed, and proved a counter-agent to public corruption. But in the United States this cannot be: the corruption of the rulers is there the corruption of all. The low swindling principles of repudiation, the callousness to human suffering of the slave-owner, and the plundering propensities of the conqueror, are not likely to be confined to the cabinet: the poison will penetrate into domestic circles. A class will be formed in every State as demoralized as the rabble of Rome under the emperors.—*Spectator, May 11.*

From Bell's Messenger.

THE ZOLLVEREIN.—Some solicitude has been excited by the pending commercial treaty between

the Northern States of Germany and the United States of America.

It has been reported, but the fact is not true to the extent, that a treaty has been actually signed and ratified between the Americans and the German Zollverein, for the mutual admission of articles at lower rates than if imported from Great Britain and other countries; the treaty being founded, it is said, upon the principle of preferential duties between the German Commercial Union and the government of the United States: the Germans to admit the importation of cotton wool, tobacco, and rice, and other articles from the United States *free of duty*, or at very reduced duties on the two latter articles of rice and tobacco; whilst reciprocal advantages are to be granted to the members of the Zollverein,—to export manufactures and worked-up fabrics to the United States, on the very low duties of custom.

It is needless to state that a very great advantage would thus be secured to the German over the British manufacturers, and that the consequence might, in the commencement, at least, be greatly prejudicial to our interests and trade.

Now there are two considerations suggested by this subject,—both of them matters of difficulty,—which we shall briefly state, and then submit our own views upon them to the reader.

There are two kinds of commercial treaties, and between them the difference does not appear at first sight to be very great, but upon examination, the distinctions are of the first importance. Under one class of treaties it is an article which enters into the substance of the convention, "That it is agreed between the contracting parties, that both countries, as respects the commerce of the other, should be put upon the footing of the most *favoured nations* without any equivalent being given. By the second description of treaties, it is provided that a country shall be placed upon the footing of the most *favoured nations*, provided she makes certain concessions."

It is to be observed that it is a treaty of the first class which now subsists between Great Britain and the United States; consequently, no proposition can be clearer, according to the faith of treaties and the law of nations, than that whilst such treaty subsists as at the *present moment* does subsist between Great Britain and the United States, the North American government cannot admit the productions of the Germanic League, or indeed of any country,—France, Russia, or Germany,—into their dominions,—on more advantageous terms than those upon which the productions and manufactures of this country are admitted.

That such is the natural construction of the American treaty there can be no doubt; the inference, therefore, which we make is, that any reduction of duties made by the United States in favor of Prussian or German manufactures must be equally advantageous, and reciprocally extend to the manufactures of Great Britain.

This subject, having been slightly touched upon in the House of Commons on Tuesday evening, drew from Sir R. Peel a very proper observation. The government, he said, had already taken this question into consideration: but as the treaty to which the Hon. member (Dr. Bowring) had adverted was not yet *ratified*, perhaps it would be better for him not to enter into details, but to content himself with stating that the matter had not escaped attention. There was a treaty in existence between this country and the United States, by

which it was stipulated that England should, in matters of trade, be put upon the same footing as the most *favoured nation*.

The government of the United States has here perhaps involved itself in some difficulties, and it is quite clear that, if they respect treaties, or wish to range within the community of nations, regarding what is just and equal, they will not dare to violate the commercial convention with the same bold and open violence, and in the same manner, as some of their single states have repudiated their debts and loans. The United States, we will venture to say, will not go this length as a body; they have not been so thoroughly corrupted by the example of a few as thus to throw off the general allegiance they owe to the law of nations and natural justice; but that they will attempt some chicanery, and try to escape from their plain obligations, we make little doubt.

We do not now recollect the precise time when our commercial treaty with the United States will expire. We believe it contains a clause, usual in such treaties, that it may be determined by either of the parties upon a three years' notice. The first question, therefore, is,—what are the Americans likely to do, and how are we to counteract them; and the second is what retaliation would be open to us, short of war, in case of their direct violation of an express treaty. * * *

What are treaties made for if not to be observed? and what difference is there in fact between a commercial treaty and any other treaty? They are binding upon the same rules of immutable justice and faith, as succession treaties, boundary treaties and all other national conventions of any kind whatever. We deny that the breach of them does not most directly and conscientiously justify an appeal to arms. The *casus belli* arises upon a wilful breach of a commercial treaty, just as much as it would arise upon the seizure of our vessels upon the high seas, or an invasion of our territories.

Nations, unhappily, have no common superior to which they can appeal; the recourse, therefore, must be, as in all other cases of wanton and wilful wrong, to arms; and whatever party shall be in possession of the government of this kingdom, the United States will find that the treaty of commerce cannot be violated with impunity. Mr. WHEATON's treaty with the Zollverein has excited particular interest and notice, not only in the press and in Parliament, but at the meetings of the Anti and Pro-Corn Law Leagues. On the 24th instant, at Covent Garden, Mr. EWART (M. P.) said:—

"There was America, whose manufactures were extending themselves with colossal strides, which always marked the onward progress of that great country. Whatever we might think of our own manufacturing supremacy, there was one nation which would follow rapidly in our steps, and possibly overtake us; a country whose people had sprung from our own soil, who were descendants of our own forefathers, and who possessed so much of English energy and perseverance, that they might be aptly termed not only English, but ultra English. [Cheers.] That nation was the United States of America. That was the nation with which we had now to contend in the manufacture of those articles in which we had hitherto maintained an easy ascendancy in the markets of the world. America was thus the most formidable manufacturing rival we had to fear. And at this moment, while we had failed in extending by a single treaty the sphere of our commerce and our

trade, we heard only yesterday that the United States had concluded a treaty with the States of the Zollverein, with great advantage to herself. Was it to be borne, then, while our rivals were employing all their energies, and exerting themselves successfully to obtain equality with us, if not actual superiority over us, in manufactures and commerce, that the Parliament of England should continue its slumbers? America had opened to herself a market of twenty-seven millions of people for her produce."

LORD ELLENBOROUGH.—What has been the immediate motive of Lord ELLENBOROUGH's recall remains a secret.

In the mean time the public are free to follow their own conception; and there can be nothing better known than the directorial opinion—long since formed, steadily sustained by events, and growing into strength from hour to hour—that the Governor-General would be a much more useful member of the state writing despatches at the India Board, than making wars in India.

The public press has certainly not leaned heavy on his lordship. It has exhibited none of the bold vituperations which bruised HASTINGS from top to toe, nor of that stern hostility which perpetually assailed the administration of the Marquis of HASTINGS. It has exhibited even something of a quiescent favoritism, a gentle inclination to give him credit for anything that he did, and on the whole the sort of reluctance to find fault which one feels in the instance of promising but immature capacity—of an intelligent child. It might have acted differently with a man of acknowledged intellectual vigor, of a daring spirit, of a systematic ambition, or a superior natural designation to power. But, from the moment when success wiped away the disgraces of Cabul, his lordship became formidable. We pass by the loose and volatile panegyric which attributed the retrieval of the British arms to his lordship. That question has been long since settled. His merit there was, to have left the question of advance or retreat in the hands of the two gallant commanders; as their merit was to have decided on advance, and to have fought their way to the enemy's capital. But the wars of Scinde and Gwalior seem to have been exclusively his lordship's, and on them must his distinctions depend.

Of the war of Scinde no defender has ever appeared. The whole event has been characterized in the strongest language in the Legislature; but there no defender came forward. It has been assailed in all the forms of printing and pamphleteering: still even the stimulus of contradiction has not produced a defender. The most influential public journals have denounced it in the most unhesitating language. But where are we to look for its defender among the boundless diversities of newspaper opinion? The only argument which we ever heard in its favor was, that it was successful.

The war of Gwalior followed. In this war the diplomacy and the arms of England seem to have been in nearly equal peril. Then comes the question, what has been the advantage of this expenditure of blood and gold in both cases? We can judge only from the facts, that in Scinde it is necessary to keep up a force of 12,000 men, of whom one fourth are said to have been in hospital; and the climate is so much dreaded by the Sepoys, that mutiny, for the first time in the last quarter of a century, has shown itself in their ranks. Of

the war of Gwalior the fruits, for good or evil, are yet to be gathered. But of its morality we may form our own opinion, from the proposition uttered, we believe, for the first time in a British legislature, that "in dealing with semi-barbarous nations we must lay aside nice distinctions in morality."

What the Governor-General may have proposed to do, or may be doing, is beyond knowledge; but if there be any truth in the common conjecture that the Punjab was tempting, that the disturbances of Lahore were opening a vista of conquest, or that the army of observation gathering on the banks of the Indus was for any purpose beyond that of absolute defence, we shall rejoice in his speedy return.

We fully believe his lordship to be a well-meaning man; but we regard his policy to be wholly hazardous to India. We have never been able to discover the necessity of his wars; and wars without necessity are contrary to the highest policy of England. We think that he deserves credit for his ready liberality to the troops, for his well-expressed praise of their generals, and for the generous and wise adoption of those marks of honor which have the proudest value to brave men. But England must leave barbarians or semibarbarians to settle their own quarrels; and the most lasting, because the purest, honor which a Governor-General can receive will be the testimony that he has cultivated the natural capacities of our Indian empire, elevated the British name by justice to the natives, and prepared the progress of Christianity by exhibiting the evidence of its value in the transactions of man with man.—*Britannia*, May 4.

INDIA.—The question of the Governor-General's recall was fully asked in the House of Commons on Tuesday last. But the answer, at once satisfying no one, and silencing every one, was given with his usual adroitness by the premier. It was tantamount to, "The thing is done and cannot be mended. Meddle with it and you only mar it. Lord ELLENBOROUGH is certainly coming home. Sir HENRY HARDINGE is certainly going out. Those are the facts of the case, and the House needs not trouble itself with the reasons." Nor need we. For us it is quite enough that the present Governor-General is under orders for home.

The rumors which assume the immediate grounds of his recall are the mere gossip of the day, the chat of St. James's-street, when it lets loose its club-men into the sunshine, the opinions of Almack's, and the profound whispers of the levée. With some the cause lies in financial puzzle, with others in martial ambition, a third party allude to negotiations for an alliance with the Great Mogul, and a fourth to a plan for removing the government to the summit of the Himalaya, and building an Imperial palace on the model of Aurungzebe's, 27,000 feet above the level of the vulgar world. "Who shall decide when doctors disagree?"

"Sum Davus non Œdipus" is a sufficient excuse for our shrinking from the development of matters so mighty; but the Governor-General is on the wing homeward, and we are satisfied.

Nothing, however, can be plainer than that the late Governor-General was not to be brought into the common category of governor-generalship. He had all the caprices of a great fiddler. Whether he played on one string, or on four, he was equally above the rules of his profession. England de-

sired peace in India. Her policy, her experience, and her humanity equally urged her to live in quiet with her Indian subjects. And nothing could have been more startling to her than to find that Lord AUCKLAND had turned warrior. But his lordship's laurels were speedily cropped. The policy of shutting out the Russians from the north of India, which they never have, and never could have, approached, by attacking the frontier tribes, was laughed at in England; but the tremendous results, the horrid massacre, and the unparalleled defeat, flight, and ruin, raised the public feeling to indignation. But a question of the highest importance is the policy which is to be pursued by the new Governor-General. The question has been asked already in the House, and obtained no answer from the minister; for there is no answer in the formal language that "Sir HENRY HARDINGE must, of course, choose his own policy." He does not choose his own policy, and, whether he be so inclined, he must not. The honest, manly, and Christian feeling of the people of England must choose it for him. It will not suffer a false and furious spirit of aggrandizement to be the policy of Cabinets at home or Governor-Generals abroad. Regarding the Indian as one to whom justice as well as humanity is due, it will not endure to see war after war crushing multitudes of beings into a bloody grave without cause, provocation, or necessity. It will disdain the hollow pretences of broken treaties which those unfortunate people never could have comprehended, and will shrink from the accession of territory which has been first made a charnel for its original possessors. The success of those invasions has not justified them in the national eye. They are denounced at this moment by the honesty of England with as sacred a voice as when the public ear was first startled by their atrocity. In this censure we do not involve the brave army which have made those seizures. We acknowledge as fully as any of their panegyrists the talents and gallantry of the generals; but invincible courage and irresistible strength are not vindications. If by some new gift of power to man, those officers, instead of sweeping the natives before them by shot and shell, could launch the lightnings against them, slay their battalions and root up their fortresses by a flash from the skies, would that be an excuse for the massacre and the ruin? If we make unjust wars—and all unnecessary wars must be unjust, even if conquest gave into our hands every hill and valley from the wall of China to the Caucasus—we should be only preparing ourselves for the more condign punishment—we should be maturing some tremendous reverse—we should with every advance of our standards be only approaching with more rapid strides the edge of that gulf into which our strength, our renown, and our supremacy, would be precipitated forever. There is a God above us. He may be forgotten in the rashness of heated ambition, or in the subtlety of crooked counsel, but he will make himself remembered when all seems secure, and will smite when even the indignant voice of honor and feeling have ceased to complain. There are instances in which Providence has struck so directly and heavily on the heads of the immediate offenders, that no man can shut his eyes to the consequence or the cause. We have already alluded to the Cabul invasion as an example of rash aggression and useless injustice—an impolitic assault on a territory which we could never retain, or which, if retained, must be

wholly unproductive in our hands. But we are entitled to allude to it in the higher sense of an example of Divine visitation. What was the fate of the original promoters and advisers of that wretched war? Who fell first? The whole local government, slain suddenly in all the fancied security of power. Unhappily, too, the blow fell wide, and involved the whole of the gallant army which was the instrument of these grasping councils. We have no instance in the records of British India of such utter extinction of an army. We have no record in the great European war of the French Revolution of so great a loss of life by a British force. We have none so great during the whole military annals of England. Of that brave army but one man escaped to bring his desperate tidings to a British garrison. When was there any destruction like this? And even this trampling of our battalions was not accomplished by rival courage and discipline, but by a mob of peasants half armed, and rude retainers—the wild matchlockmen and spearmen of the hills, without a single piece of cannon. Yet before this mob perished a more numerous army than prostrated the Mahratta empire at Assaye. And even the means of ruin were scarcely less characteristic. That army was ruined by absolute infatuation. NAPOLEON, at Moscow, when he was ripening his destruction hour by hour, was not more the mark of infatuation. Every step that could be taken by fatuity was taken by the British commanders; every fault that could be committed was blindly chosen; habitual treachery was trusted, habitual hatred was taken for amity; open violence was taken for fidelity to engagements, and with the sword over their necks the British soldiery were duped into relying on Afghan mercy. The result was inevitable ruin. But, with this solemn and terrible warning still sounding in our ears, can we venture on new aggression, indulge in visions of endless conquest, and talk, in the extravagant language of the royal madmen of antiquity, of combining all the East under our dominion? The more modern word is *protection*, but the meaning is the same, the crime the same, and the punishment will be the same. Our late conquests; as they are called, (we can easily imagine the native name for them,) have cost the blood of two thousand or, perhaps, three thousand of our troops, and of, perhaps, ten times the number of the enemy's. Will not these things bring evil? Nothing is more evident than that they have not hitherto brought good, that Scinde is a burden, and that Gwalior is useless. If Sir HENRY HARDINGE carries with him the slightest intention of adopting the "aggressive system," we deeply deprecate his policy. But this we will not believe. He has hitherto had the character of an intelligent and high-principled man, and this he can sustain only by governing India in the spirit of justice, and clearing the British name from the curse of war.

Britannia, May 11.

TEXAS.—The arrival of the *Acadia* steamer has put the public in possession of the intelligence, so little doubted by any one who has known the grasping conduct of the American republic in all its transactions, the signing of a treaty for the annexation of Texas by the government of the United States. It is, however, said that this is merely an experiment, that the measure has still to make its way through the Senate, and that there is every probability of its *not* being able to

make its way through. This we altogether doubt. The virtue of the Senate is on a par with the virtue of the populace, and, even if some partial opposition for form's sake should be raised, the treaty will be ultimately ratified.

The obvious fact is, that in a republic there can be no public justice; the populace are its virtual governors, the will of the streets sets the will of the Legislature at defiance; and we thus have paupers deciding on property, and bankrupts on justice, clamor putting down conscience, ignorance settling affairs which demand knowledge, and rabble prejudices acting with a sense of full impunity, and rabble passions threatening every man who has the honesty to stand up for the common principles of justice between nations.

The annexation of Texas will undoubtedly be scorned by all honest men, as one of the most flagrant offences ever committed by a nation professing a respect for human rights, and reprobated by all rational men as one of the most barefaced violations of all the principles of reasoning.

The case is distinctly this:—Some years ago Texas, a province of Mexico, being largely peopled with refugees and squatters from the United States, revolted and went to war with the parent state. Mexico being unable to conquer her revolted subjects, Texas declared itself independent and established a Republican government. This government was acknowledged by England and other countries, but never by Mexico, which, of course, still regarded Texas as simply its rebel province, which it was resolved to bring back whenever it should have the power. Texas, at length, feeling that it is unable to sustain the struggle with Mexico, proposes to become a portion of the United States, for the express purpose of preventing its conquest by its original masters, and there the matter stands at this moment. To such a proposal what ought to be the language of the American?

"We are at peace with Mexico, and we therefore must not interfere with her rights. If the independence of Texas shall be acknowledged by Mexico, then we may accept it as a portion of the United States. But Mexico still regards Texas as one of her provinces, and not less such because it may have for a while repulsed the power of the parent state. But, if we take it into connection with us, we prohibit Mexico from ever becoming mistress of it again, which she fully intends to do, and has every right to do. Thus we actually rob a state with whom we are at peace."

And the arguments by which the letters of the Secretaries of Government attempt to support this desperate appropriation are perfectly suited to its character. They pretended, in the first instance, that America had a right to the annexation, *because* England probably would either seize Texas, or at least make some alliance with it which might become injurious to the United States. But this was promptly and distinctly disclaimed by the English Cabinet. The next pretext was, that England, in expressing her opinion against the continuance of slavery in Texas, intended to make that a commencement for intrigues against the slave system in the United States. To that Lord ABERDEEN gave the most complete denial.

The pretext now is, that England, by making the general declaration of her wish to see slavery extinguished in every part of the world, renders it *necessary* that America should possess Texas; as

if, in *process of time*, any abolition should occur there, it *might* injure the interests of the slave-dealing states of America. Thus, though no attempt whatever is made, nor intended to be made, on the slave system of America, the Government of the United States is to feel itself authorized to take possession, merely to prevent an evil wholly improbable and utterly disclaimed. The true reason is, that America longs to possess this portion of her neighbor's goods, a fertile territory nearly as large as France.

It would be only trifling with the common understanding of man to expose the ridiculous arguments to which those arguers are driven. It is enough for the world to know that the republic which laid down as its first principle that "all men are by nature equal," comes forward now as the formal advocate of slavery, and the only one except the King of Ashantee. Slavery is for the first time defined to be "a political institution," not a suffering and a misery—a sale of beings as immortal as ourselves, and the abandonment of men, be their color what it may, to the wretchedness, the vice, the cruelty, and the despair which must be included in all the general corruptions of transatlantic slavery.

It is enough to excite universal disgust to know that in America human beings are actually born and reared for exportation, like pigs; that creatures capable of local attachment and natural affections are habitually dragged from the place of their birth and all their early associations, and sent into distant countries for sale—thus incurring, from mere avarice of their fellow-man and the mere circumstance of being born, that separation from country and friends which marks the punishment of felons in Europe; or that children are torn from their parents, never to see or be seen by them again in this world; and all this only to put money in the pocket of a ruffian with his mouth stuffed full with the verbiage of liberty and philanthropy.

But one of the arguments of CALHOUN, the Secretary of State, is, actually, that slavery is a good to the negro, and that he becomes "blind, deaf, dumb, or idiotic" when free. What the wretched African may be among a slaveholding population, or a rabble of canting democrats, is nothing to the purpose. Let the question be asked, what he is in his country? Is he a sufferer by the loss of eyes, tongue, or understanding in his own country? We have heard no more extraordinary libel on freedom in the lips of an inquisitor or a gaoler. At all events, this is the first time in which we have ever heard the continuance of slavery justified as a "political institution," necessary to the state; or an act of palpable insult to the law of nations justified by a state convenience and an imaginary contingency. In the great dramatist's phrase:—

"This will not, and it cannot, come to good."

Britannia.

It is not to be supposed that republics are less greedy and ambitious than monarchies; they are often influenced by the worst passions of royal houses and dynasties, and are, generally speaking, only more covetous and sordid, in so far as the democratic feeling preponderates above what is peculiar to an educated aristocracy. In one of the speeches of Mr. Windham at the close of the French war by the peace of Amiens, that statesman acutely observed—"That, though the United

States had not been rocked in the same cradle of revolution as France, they had imitated some of her deeds in a manner more ignoble and profligate; and that whilst Buonaparte had been appropriating to himself whole kingdoms in Germany and Italy, the United States of America had seized upon a brace of continents as their shares of the plunder, and that Louisiana and New Florida had passed into their hands almost without the discharge of a musket."

In treaties made by the United States it does not always happen that a ratification follows a convention. In the late treaty of the German Zollverein for admitting the commodities of those states upon very low duties into America, to the manifest infraction of the commercial treaty between the United States and Great Britain; the convention, though made, has not yet been ratified; and it is not improbable that the American Senate will reject this treaty for the annexation of Texas, and upon these two grounds; that it is an act of appropriation made without the consent of the mother country, Mexico, from which Texas has been torn by the fury of civil war; and secondly, on the principle that such an appropriation would not carry along with it the sanction of Great Britain and other European powers.

The two points which concern Great Britain in this case are, first, the relations in which we have voluntarily placed ourselves as regards Texas on the one hand, and the United States on the other; and the second point for consideration is, how we should be affected, both according to the principles of our treaty and the laws of humanity, in case the Senate should adopt the treaty, and Congress proceed to enforce the annexation of Texas against the government of Mexico.

As respects the first point, the late American papers contain several official despatches from our own government, which the President has laid before the Senate; and one in particular from Mr. Pakenham, the British minister, containing a letter from the Earl of Aberdeen, addressed to him at Washington in February last.

Now it is impossible to read this letter without perceiving how much we have been embarrassed by the late imprudent policy of the Whigs in their absurd recognition of the independence of Texas without first procuring the consent of Mexico.

By recognizing the independence of Texas, we have placed her in the condition of negotiating for herself, and left her free to annex herself to Northern America, and to incorporate and merge her own independence and self-government in the general confederation of the United States. It is thus difficult to see what right we have to interfere to prohibit this annexation. If Texas be independent for one purpose she is independent for another; and the Continental Powers might as well have interposed some forty years ago, to have prevented the union of Great Britain and Ireland, as we interpose to prohibit Texas from sinking her independence in the general government of the United States. Lord Aberdeen's letter, indeed, does not point to any such intention on the part of Great Britain, and if we are right in collecting the spirit of it, it seems indirectly to sanction any steps which Texas or the United States may take to carry the incorporation into effect. The letter is rather addressed, indeed, to urge Mexico to recognize the independence of Texas, and to point out to the United States, and to the whole world, the constant and immutable purpose of England, to

procure the general abolition of slavery in its two branches of slave-trading and slave-holding; that is, of foreign importation and domestic slavery.

And here we cannot overlook the obstacle which has been raised up against our own humanity, by our too precipitate recognition of the independence of Texas, to which we were principally urged by a treaty, offered upon their part, as a condition of the recognition, namely, that they would not only refrain from slave-trading, but pledge themselves to put down the entire system of domestic slavery as rapidly as possible. This was the main inducement to the recognition of the independence of Texas on the part of Great Britain, and we cannot but perceive that in case of the incorporation of Texas in the American Union, all power to enforce this condition of the treaty will be altogether lost. Whilst Texas remained independent we had a right to call upon her to make constant efforts to uproot slavery from her soil. It was for this purpose we recognized her independence and advanced her to a free state. But the moment Texas is merged into the United States, we can no longer use this language. She has passed from us, and we have no longer any control over her. We have given you independence, and like a prodigal you have sold it; and you can no longer concur with us, even if sincerely disposed, in that great work of benevolence for which we contracted with you in the first instance. In passing into the body of the confederated States of North America, you engage in new ties and bonds directly opposed to your former assurances and our expectations. The Southern States, of which you become one, are zealously upholding that very condition which it is the object of England to destroy throughout the whole compass of the globe.

In addition to these unpleasant consequences of the annexation there is yet one other observation which applies itself to the new condition of Texas, supposing the incorporation takes place. England can no longer interpose with Mexico to recognize the independence of her chief province, and for this cogent reason, that Texas has ceased to be an independent State herself by becoming one of the American Union and Confederate States. As respects Mexico, Texas has not only achieved her independence, but, having obtained it, has also sold it; and in this state of things Great Britain can no longer interfere with the parent State.

But it is still possible that one or two states of circumstances may arise, and lead to considerable embarrassment, both on our part and on that of the United States. The first is, an attempt, not improbable, of the United States, to force upon Mexico the recognition of Texan independence by arms; and the next is,—the non-consent of the other European powers to the annexation.

In the first case, we think Great Britain will have a right to interfere, and to say that Mexico shall not be compelled to surrender up her province by force; in which case the United States could do nothing without exposing themselves to a war, and this they would not be disposed to hazard for the sake of the intended annexation. Again, the other states of Europe, not having recognized Texas, would have a full right to resist the Americans in what may be deemed a conquest upon the southern continent. Now in the event of either of these circumstances occurring, much public confusion would arise. England might be compelled to interfere to prevent Mexico being forced, and the European States might be inclined to resist

the further aggrandizement of the United States. It is, therefore, our sincere wish that the Senate at Washington may reject the message of the President, and prefer their present safe condition to the hazard of a future war.

FRANCE.

PRINCE DE JOINVILLE. Paris has been startled by the appearance of the Prince de Joinville as a pamphleteer, in opposition to the ministry but in harmony with the war-party. Ministers are reported to have protested against the publication of the prince's lucubrations; the king himself is said to have exerted his paternal authority in an endeavor at suppression; but the royal agitator was obstinate, and the pamphlet was published on Wednesday. It is a Cassandra-like warning on the state of the French navy. The author disclaims animosity to England and desire for war; but speculates freely on the feasibility of attacking this island, and of destroying our confidence in our insular position and in our commercial marine. When sailing was the only resource of the navy, he says, France could not compete with England, because success belonged to whichever nation could furnish most sailors. Now an engine takes the place of a hundred sailors, and France could always furnish enough soldiers and money for a steam-marine. To preserve peace, one must be prepared for war; and steam-navigation gives France an opportunity of attaining equality with England. But her ministers have allowed England to get the start; hence his pamphlet.

SLAVERY. The most important circumstance of the week is the declaration of M. Guizot, that the French Government have resolved to abolish slavery. In the Chamber of Deputies, on Saturday, a petition was presented from the operatives of Paris for the abolition of negro slavery in the French colonies. An animated debate took place on it, in the course of which M. Guizot explicitly declared that it was the determination of the government to abolish negro slavery in the French colonies, and that in their course they would be guided by the example and the experience of Great Britain. Ultimately the petition was referred to the Minister of Marine.

The importance of that declaration cannot be estimated too highly. The moral effect of the abolition in the French colonies will be immense. It will be a great step to the extinction of slavery all over the world.

The *Patrie* states that M. Thiers has concluded his *History of the Empire*, and is to deliver the manuscript on Tuesday to the publisher, who is to pay him 500,000 francs for the work.

There is no other topic of interest in the French papers, if we except some remarks on the address of the Archbishop of Paris to the King on his majesty's *fête-day*, on Wednesday in last week. The Primate did not conceal his dissatisfaction at the present state of the University question, nor did the king scruple to hint a charge of contumacy and ingratitude. The archbishop did not attend the banquet given in the evening.—*Britannia*, May 11.

SPAIN.

THERE has been a change of Ministry in Spain, and no one seems to care one straw for the matter, except the gentlemen of the *Bolsa*, the *Bourse*,

and the Exchange. The story told is strange. Senor Gonzales Bravo resigns, because he objects to restoring confiscated church property. This is pretty tantamount to Mr. Gregory, editor of the *Satirist*, refusing to be First Lord of the Treasury, because he objected to the Archbishop of Canterbury being allowed to reside at Lambeth.

Christina and her Moderado politicians resemble much a crew of those inexperienced sailors, who venture to sea with no reliance upon their own skill, or upon the compass, but who direct all their zeal and hope to the image of the patron saint, the object of their orisons. Christina and Narvaez scorn constitutional law and rights,—the mariner's compass of the political ocean,—whilst they kneel down to Pope and Church to save them; Pope and Church having as much influence over the political doings of an emancipated people like the Spaniards, as the image of the saint has over the winds, which he is thought to control.

But the Pope is true to the traditional craft of his court. Revolutionary France was about as unmanageable a subject as the Court of Rome could have had to deal with; but when Bonaparte wanted to be crowned, like Charlemagne, by the Pope's hands, the Pontif seized his advantage and secured the *concordat*. By this *concordat* the Pope has a veto upon the nomination of all bishops, whilst the appointment of all the clergy of France is exclusively in episcopal hands. Such a church militant was never allowed to be formed in a free country. Now has come the turn of Spain. Christina has been naughty. Her marriage with Munoz is not a regular one, and puts one in mind of the observation of the gentleman in the "*Demoiselles de St. Cyr*." "Fie," says a lady to him, "you so gallant, whilst you are a married man."—"Je le suis si peu," is the reply. Now Christina is so little married, that she wants the Pope, for her children's sake and her own, to make up all defects. His Holiness does not refuse, but he imposes as a penance or a price the restoration of church property at least to the secular clergy. His Holiness, by this demand, has come in conflict with the great power of the age, the money market, for not only is the property mortgaged to the creditors, but in the sales of it the state bonds are taken in payment to a certain degree, which keep up the price of said bonds; and the struggle of the *Bolsa* versus the Pope, will be fierce.

On the part of Christina this is merely a domestic move; but in the opinion of Narvaez it is a great political affair: he is zealous to build up a monarchy like Charles the Fifth, and although he wants all the materials, he still thinks it may be done if he could get a Ximenes to aid him. And he has got an Archbishop of Toledo, as proud and as bigoted as need be, but poor as a rat, who says, "Give me money, and I will give you power." But where the power or the money is to come from is a mystery, and must remain so, especially as this alliance between Church and State begins by a downright quarrel with the monied potentates.—*Examiner*.

SOCIAL STATE OF SPAIN.—The following extract from a private letter, dated Madrid, May 4, and which we copy from the Morning Post, contains some singular illustrations of the state of society in this ill-governed and distracted country:—

"But now for a few details as to its social relations. I shall take my illustrations from commercial life. No one that is familiar with commercial

habits of business in England can be otherwise than struck with the singular customs of mercantile men here. Having a letter of introduction and of credit upon a great merchant in one of the first towns of Spain, I had the opportunity, whilst enjoying the hospitality of the worthy senor, of seeing his manner of doing business. Having asked him where he kept his bank, he showed me a strong room, where piles of uncounted silver were heaped upon the floor. Having asked an explanation, he said he kept his money in this form, because if robbers broke in they might take as much as they could carry, and still not ruin him. But a far more curious instance is the following:—There exists a firm of the highest possible respectability, and doing immense business in the wine trade, in a town of forty thousand inhabitants, within a few miles of a seaport of still greater dimensions. This firm, thanks to the disorganized state of the country, keeps constantly upon the premises from £15,000 to £20,000 in gold, ready for the purchase of vintages of wine. Many have been the attempts to break into these immense warehouses. For instance, a barber's shop next door was hired by some unknown parties, and a hole bored through the party-wall. This proceeding was fortunately found out, the aforesaid house purchased and razed to the ground, and a strong room built in the very centre of the warehouses. There £20,000 in gold were locked up at first; but, fortunately, one day, the senor of the house had £8,000 removed into a cellar of difficult access, below ground. A few days afterwards, on going to the strong room, the cashier found that all the money had disappeared, excepting a few bags of French five-franc pieces, which the robbers probably did not find convenient to carry off. The locks of the doors had not been tampered with—the robbers had entered by the common sewer of the town, at a great distance, and there had begun mining and vaulting in the most scientific manner, until they found themselves beneath the strong room, which they pierced through from below, and effected their purpose. The head of the firm, who was absent, on returning home, vainly sought to discover the robbers. A young friend of his, however, found out the clue; but having unfortunately stated his suspicions one night at a coffee-house, he was assassinated at twelve o'clock at night, just as he was going out of his door. The principal authors of the robbery and subsequent murder are more than suspected to be a mason well acquainted with the premises, and a lawyer, who has ceased to visit the owners, but who was wont to be a constant visitor previous to the robbery, and go about the warehouses hitting the floor with his cane, no doubt sounding, to ascertain the progress of the mining operations. These two worthies have lately lived in splendor, and in perfect impunity—thanks to the terror they inspire. Such is the social state of Spain."

HAYTI.

The following lamentable account of the insurrection at Hayti we copy from the *Jamaica Gazette* of the 8th April:—

The French brig *Adelina*, Capt. Tahet, arrived in this port on Saturday evening, bringing disastrous intelligence, and no less than 140 passengers, including 25 children—all persons of color, and compelled to fly from their native land, to seek refuge under the flag of foreigners. The new

president, Herard, had marched with a large army for St. Domingo city, to quell the insurrection in the eastern portion of the island. Taking advantage of the absence of the general and troops, the black people rose *en masse* on Sunday, the 31st ultimo, and commenced an indiscriminate slaughter of the brown population. On Wednesday the National Guards of the town of Aux Cayes went out with two pieces of ordnance to suppress the rebellion and punish the rebels, but, as we have learned, their own general commanding delivered up the cannons to the blacks, and joined them himself. Thus strengthened they drove the National Guard back to Aux Cayes, entered the town, and commenced a relentless butchery—murdering every brown person, without regard to sex or age. The wretched inhabitants had no means of defence, no refuge, save on board the few foreign ships lying in the harbor—French, American, and English. Into these they crowded in confused and huddled batches—men, women, and children literally covering the decks, and exhibiting a distressing spectacle of misery and sudden destitution. But the decked vessels were not sufficient to hold the number of wretched refugees; the port was dotted over with small open boats, each containing as many human beings as it could hold, who dared not remain on land to await certain massacre, and yet could have little hope of escape by sea. Capt. Tahet could not think of leaving to a miserable fate those who had fled to his protection and the guardianship of the tricolor. He was bound for France, and had but provisions sufficient for his crew. With disinterested generosity he sailed for Jamaica, and here has safely landed his unhappy freight.

MISCELLANEOUS INTELLIGENCE.

COMMERCE IN THE CHINESE SEAS.—The French government have published extracts from despatches of their naval commanders in the Chinese seas, relative to the commerce of those countries. The report of the commander of the *Heroine* concerning the trade of the Dutch with Japan, is curious and circumstantial. The Dutch send a vessel of 1000 tons to Japan each year, one half the freight of which is sugar. Camphor and copper are what they import in return. Twelve Chinese junks generally sail each year from Ningpo to Japan. Last year 16 were sent, and the Japanese made no objection to the augmentation. The 16, according to the French captain, were laden with *English woollen, cotton, and silk stuffs*. Captain Belcher, of the *Samarang*, has been ordered to survey the coast of Japan, and, if possible, form some trading arrangement for the English. The captain of the *Heroine* states the sugar of Cochin to sell there at from 3½ to 4 piastres the picul, but, as the king has the monopoly of trade, and as he gives exports but in proportion as the imports please him, the trade is far from certain.

A SOUT ROPE.—A rope has just been spun by the Gourcock rope-work company, which exceeds in its dimensions anything of the kind ever manufactured on the Clyde. It is 672 feet in length, and 11½ inches in circumference, and weighs 32cwt. 2qrs. 7lb. It was finished in three hours. It is intended for a coal-pit near Glasgow.

GISSY WIT.—A short time since, two young ladies were accosted by a gipsy woman, who told them, that, for a shilling each, she would show them their husband's faces in a pail of water; which, being brought, they exclaimed, "Why, we only see our own faces." "Well," said the old woman, "those faces will be your husbands' when you are married."

SINGULAR OCCURRENCE.—About three weeks since, as some men were employed sowing oats near Marshwood, in the parish of Dulverton, Devon, they heard the sheep-bitch, and a bitch terrier that had accompanied them, barking in the adjoining wood, and fancied it was at some bird on one of the trees. After finishing their work, they went to look for them, and strange as it may appear, found the sheep bitch suckling four young foxes which the terrier had helped her to dig out. Both the dogs had whelped about ten days before, and had their young destroyed. The cubs are doing well, and may be seen at Mr. Webber's, Draydon farm, under the fostering care of both the sheep-bitch and terrier, who share in their support, and who appear to vie with each other in cherishing them.

BAR TO MARRIAGE.—The government of the principality of Waldek, in Germany, have given public notice, that no license to marry will hereafter be granted to any individual who is addicted to drunkenness; or, if he have been so, he must exhibit full proofs that he is no longer a slave to this vice. The same government have also directed that, in every report made by the ecclesiastical, municipal, and police authorities, upon petition for license to marry, the report shall distinctly state whether either of the parties desirous of entering into matrimonial connexion, is given to intemperance or otherwise.

A FAMILY BOTTLE.—About sixty years ago, a pair of bluecaps built their nest in a large stone bottle, which was left to drain between the lower boughs of a fruit tree, in the garden of Calender, near Stockton. Every year since that period, they, or their progeny, have regularly reared their young in the same bottle; and during the last few days the birds have again been busily employed in constructing their nest in their old domicile, in the neck of which they are constantly entering in and out all the "live long day." The neck of the bottle just admits the birds.—*Cumberland Packet*.

WHOLESALE MARRIAGES.—During the whole of Tuesday, Duke's-place, Aldgate, and its vicinity, presented a gay and animated appearance, in consequence of the numerous weddings which had taken place amongst the "ancient people." In the Roman Catholic Church, marriages are prohibited, except under peculiar circumstances, during Lent, so that it is a very common custom in Ireland, especially the humbler classes, for a number of couples to get married on the Shrove Tuesday. Amongst the Hebrew community a similar prohibition for 28 days exists, and Wednesday being the day preceding the commencement of the prohibition, no fewer than 28 marriages were said to have been solemnized at the three eastern Synagogues—namely, Duke's-place, Great Saint Helen's, and Leadenhall-street.

BIRTH IN A WHEELBARROW.—On Saturday, a woman named Thompson, who procures a scanty subsistence by vending hearth-stone, was taken suddenly ill whilst passing through the East India-road, Poplar, and it soon appeared that she was in strong labor pains. A crowd soon collected, which attracted some constables to the spot, who, in the exigency of the case, had no other resource than to deposit her in her own wheelbarrow, where she was quickly delivered of a fine female child. The poor woman and her infant are both doing well.

AN ARISTOCRATIC CONVICT.—We find the following in the *Aix la Chapelle Gazette*.—"The Baroness de Zoller, the wife of a very distinguished officer, has been condemned to five years' imprisonment for having confined her mother, who was about to marry a protestant. She wanted in this way to prevent the marriage. A petition was sent in by her friends praying for a commutation of the punishment, but the king replied that, looking at the nature of the offence, this was impossible.

THE GREAT CHESS MATCH.—It having been insinuated by the French champion, M. St. Amant, that Mr. Staunton, in his late proposals for playing a match at chess with any player in Europe, had imposed conditions which he knew were unacceptable to him, our countryman instantly published a prompt and decisive refutation of the charge, in the shape of a challenge addressed to M. St. Amant himself for a new match.

UNDER the date of "Dresden, 29th April," the *Globe* says—"Queen Victoria will not come to Germany this summer; but the King of Saxony will go to England on the 29th May, to pay a visit to the English Court. His Majesty will also visit Scotland. The whole journey is to be accomplished in six weeks."

ANTI-STATE CHURCH.—Delegates from all parts of England, Ireland, and Scotland, assembled at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, on 30th April, as an "Anti-State Church Conference," to consider the best means of effecting a severance between the Church and the State. Upwards of twelve hundred delegates were present; amongst whom were, Dr. Bowring, M. P., Mr. S. Crawford, M. P., Mr. J. S. Trevelyan, M. P., Mr. J. Sturge, Dr. Epps, and several dissenting ministers. The Reverend John Burnet was called to the chair. A long report was read by Dr. Cox, and speeches were made by Mr. Sharman Crawford, Dr. Bowring, and others; all in accordance with the main object. The Reverend Dr. Young moved a resolution, declaring that "the Conference was not intended as a demonstration of nonconformist strength, and that its object was the disenfranchisement of religion from the influence of secular control." In the course of the two next days, several other papers were read and resolutions passed on the subject of ecclesiastical establishments; one resolution announcing an appeal to Parliament for the abolition of all laws supporting any particular form of worship or exacting public contributions in support of it. On Wednesday, it was resolved to establish a society to be called "The British Anti-State Church Association," and to hold a conference every three years. An executive committee was appointed to carry out the plan; and, with thanks to the officers of the conference, the assembly broke up.

THE average number of letters passing through the Post-office every week at the present time, as shown by returns to the House of Commons just published, is upwards of 4,598,573. A correspondent remarks, that "if every letter thus sent economically for one penny during a single week were to pay twopence—one penny for postage, and one penny to the national testimonial to Rowland Hill—it would add £19,019 to the subscription."

FURNITURE OF NAPOLEON.—On Wednesday a sale by auction of the property of the late Sir Hudson Lowe, including some portion of the furniture which was in the possession of the Emperor Napoleon at St. Helena, took place at the auction rooms of Mr. Phillips, by order of the executors of Sir Hudson Lowe. These consisted of about twenty lots, and among them were a large mahogany frame indulging chair, banded with ebony, on castors, from the Emperor's study, 15*l.* 5*s.*; a small circular mahogany pillar and claw table, on which Napoleon burnt pastiles, 6*l.* 6*s.*; a six-foot pedestal library table, formed of mahogany and yew tree, on which table he almost always wrote, 18*l.* 18*s.*; an ebony arm chair, with cane seat and back, formed of common materials (there was a hole in the cane seat, which had been caused by being constantly used, and it was stated by some brokers in the room not to be worth 1*s.* 6*d.*) From the chair being light it was carried about by the Emperor when he took his walks at Longwood. It was bought for £6.

THE Queen had appointed Philip Henry Stanhope, Esq., (commonly called Viscount Mahon,) and the Right Honorable Thomas Babington Macaulay, "to be additional Commissioners for the purpose of inquiring whether advantage might not be taken of the rebuilding of the Houses of Parliament for promoting and encouraging the Fine Arts."

THE amazing increase in the daily duty of the General Post-office is manifested in every department. Since the reduction of the rates on foreign, colonial, inter-colonial, and inland letters, the number, both inwards and outwards, has materially increased.

A LIVERPOOL MERCHANT.—In 1836 the transactions of Mr. Brown's house amounted to £10,000,000. In 1837, the American banks, all over the Union, went down one after another, and many together, almost with a universal crash. They fell, and their fall involved the Messrs. Brown. The latter were not crushed, but they were bruised. American commerce was at that time a towering pile in course of erection; bank credit was the scaffolding. It fell, and the Browns were not far from being smothered in the rubbish. Had they possessed less than the strength of giants they could not have extricated themselves, and, giants as they were, they would have struggled in vain had not a powerful hand assisted them. The British government saw, and looked with apprehension as it saw, the struggles of this gigantic establishment. From Inverness to Penzance there was not a single town but would have felt its fall. In Sheffield and Birmingham, and the towns surrounding them, and in Manchester, Leeds, and all the great factory communities, a large number of the merchants and employers, and, as a matter of course, every man and woman employed were less or more involved in the fate of this establishment. The government of that day saw the imminent peril, and so did the directors of the Bank of England; the latter met, and passed a resolution to give assistance to Mr. Brown to the extent of two millions. The exact sum which he was authorized to draw—a loan of money to an individual unparalleled in the history of the world—was £1,959,000. Of this loan he took advantage to the extent of between eight and nine hundred thousand pounds, which he has since repaid, besides clearing off all other embarrassments. What Mr. Brown's personal fortune may be now, it is not necessary to inquire. It is ample—probably not less than the sum which he was authorized to borrow from the Bank of England in 1837, probably more.—*Chronicle.*

A LETTER from Stockholm states that, from motives of economy, the king will not get himself crowned either in Sweden or Norway. Three other kings, those of France, Prussia, and Belgium, not having undergone this ceremony, the king of Sweden, it is said, feels that he can very well dispense with it.

LETTERS from Paris state that a new absentee-tax, ordained by the Emperor of Russia, has frightened home numbers of that nation. For a family of three, who pass a year away from Russia, the absentee-tax amounts to about £240.

THE English vocalists find separate entertainments, in which story and song are combined, the most popular and profitable. Mr. Lover has brought out a new budget of national melodies and anecdotes, which he christens the *Irish Brigade*: hilarious echoes responded to their rattling fire of jokes, and whenever the Irish Brigade has a field-day—appropriately numbered among *Irish Evenings*—the corps will come off with flying colors.

MR. WILSON has also produced a new entertainment of Scottish song, the *Jacobite Relics*; affording a rich fund of characteristic melodies united with

sweet poetry and racy humor. It carries us to the very fountain-head of this peculiar inspiration—goes so far back as the battles of Killcrankie and Sheriffmuir, and comes so far down as the eve of the '45. Wilson appears to have taken a new lease of his voice, so fresh and sound does it ring upon the ear—we never heard it to more advantage than this week.

DECORATIVE DESIGNS FOR THE NEW PARLIAMENT HOUSES.—Our attention has been drawn to a pamphlet furnishing explanations of a design for providing stained glass windows for the House of Lords, illustrative of the principal eras in English history. A specimen of the stained glass, and a complete design for one window, are now on exhibition among the decorative specimens in the St. James'-street Bazaar. The design is certainly clever, and the plan of surrounding the monarchs of England with the great men who reflected most lustre on their reigns, ingenious and well devised. The details are of course susceptible of any required alterations, should the idea be favorably received. It is an historical fact that the tapestry hangings in the House of Lords furnished Chatham with the theme of his grandest burst of eloquence when Lord Suffolk justified the employment of the wild Indians against the devoted colonists in the American war:—

"From the tapestry that adorns these walls the immortal ancestor of this noble lord frowns with indignation at the disgrace of his country. In vain he led your victorious fleets against the boasted Armada of Spain—in vain he defended and established the honor, the liberties, the religion, the Protestant religion, of this country against the arbitrary cruelties of Popery, if these more than Popish cruelties are let loose among us."

Obviously it must be for the advantage of the country that its Senate House should be decorated with whatever can fill the mind with grand and elevated thoughts, or which can recall past glories and inspire sentiments of principle and patriotism. In this way it would seem that the stained windows, besides being highly ornamental, and ministering to that taste for art which is always healthful and purifying, might present a pleasing record of illustrious examples of genius and virtue, and throw upon the very floor of the house, as the sun shone through the painted glass, reflected images of national triumphs in the arts of peace and war.

HORRIBLE ACCIDENT.—An occurrence of a distressing character took place on Freckleton marsh. A young man, named Walton Kirby, set off with the intention of proceeding to Preston with his intended bride to make some purchases. The latter, it appeared, had started before him, but he not being aware of this, was loitering with the expectation of meeting her. He was, however, passed by a man who informed him that she was some distance in advance. On hearing this he took a short pipe, which he was smoking, from his mouth and put it in his coat pocket, and then started off at a quicker rate. A brisk wind was blowing, and it is believed that this caused the fragments of the tobacco in the pipe to set fire to his coat, which he did not perceive till it was beyond his power to extinguish the flames. A cottager, named Henry Harrison, having his attention attracted by the flames, saw a man prostrate on the ground, but before he reached him the poor fellow had started off in the direction of the toll-gate, distant about a quarter of a mile. The flames had spread over his garments so rapidly that when he arrived at the gate-house scarcely a fragment of clothing was left upon his person, a belt which he wore only being entire; even his shoes were calcined by the fire. When Harrison arrived at the gate the poor man was imploring assistance from the gate-keeper, which, however, was inhumanly refused, and Harrison was

under the necessity of taking him to his own cottage, distant upwards of a mile, where he furnished him with clothes. No hopes are entertained of his recovery.—*Preston Chronicle*.

POST-OFFICE RETURNS.—The ordinary Post-office returns, which have just been made to Parliament, show, among others, the following results:—

The number of letters delivered in the United Kingdom, in 1843, was upwards of 220 millions. The three weeks which are given of 1844, show an increase over the corresponding week of 1843, of a quarter of a million letters per week—this is an increase in the rate of increase, owing, no doubt, to improvement in trade. The letters of the London district post are now at the rate of twenty-six millions per annum, or fully double the number under the old system, notwithstanding that, up to the date of the returns, there had been no increase in the number of town deliveries. The gross revenue of the year 1843 was £1,620,867, and the net revenue £640,217; showing in each instance an increase, as compared with 1842, of about £40,000; which, considering the important reductions in foreign rates, is as much as could be expected. We have stated the revenue as it ought to have been given in the return—it is given at about £85,000 less, owing, as explained in a note, to certain old debts (some fifty years old) having been written off. The gross revenue is now about 70 per cent. of that received under the old system, and it exceeds that obtained during the fourpenny rate.

The money orders still increase in number and amount. The sum annually remitted through the Post office in England and Wales alone is now nearly five millions. The increase of money orders, since 1839, is twenty-five fold.—*Examiner*.

DRUNKENNESS AND MURDER.—A Dantsic journal publishes the following horrible account, and guarantees its authenticity:—The clergyman of a village in Lithuania had amongst his parishioners a young man dreadfully given to intoxication. Finding all other means of reforming him useless the clergyman took him one day to the church, and there made him swear solemnly, in the presence of the image of Christ, that he would abstain altogether from spirituous liquors. In the evening of the same day the young man met some friends, who invited him to a public-house. He refused, and told them the motive of his refusal, for which he was so ridiculed that he at length consented to accompany them, and soon fell dead drunk from his chair. In this state the publican had him removed to the house of his father and mother, who, being very religious persons, and knowing the oath that he had taken, were much shocked at his perjury. They called together all the members of the family, and it was decided that he had made himself the slave of the devil, and that it would be pleasing to God to put him to death immediately. They consequently mixed some pulverized arsenic in an infusion of herbs, and giving it to the drunkard, who was still insensible from the fumes of the brandy that he had taken, he died in a few hours in violent convulsions. His murderers have been arrested, and will be brought for trial, for a crime committed by them under an idea that it would be agreeable to the Almighty.

A wet silk handkerchief, tied, without folding over the face, is, it is said, security against suffocation from smoke; it permits free breathing, and at the same time excludes the smoke from the lungs.

A LETTER from St. Petersburg states that it is proposed to construct a new line of communication from the frontier between Russia and Galicia to the seaport of Odessa, and that by means of the junction of the railroads at Cracow a similar communication will be opened with the Baltic and the North Sea.

The German Society for emigration to Texas, has purchased 450 square miles of that country, near St. Antonio de Bexar, and send their first batch in September.

EXTRAORDINARY TAKE OF SALMON WITH ROD AND LINE.—Four inhabitants of Newark have caught, at a place called the Devon Mouth, which empties itself into the Trent, near the above town, no less than 32 salmon, varying from 8lb. to 16lb. each; a circumstance not to be remembered by the oldest inhabitant living. The fish were taken within three days.—*Doncaster Gazette*.

THE LEADING DIPLOMATISTS OF EUROPE.—It has been much the fashion of the day to express an absurd wonder that the Jews possess so much influence in so many European cabinets. Why, they possess this influence in all, for show me the cabinet in which one at least of the privy councillors is not a Jew. A few years ago I went to negotiate a public loan to St. Petersburg. On my arrival I had an immediate interview with the Russian minister of finance, Count Cancrin; I found him the son of a Lithuanian Jew. I afterwards went to Madrid on a like errand, and I had to transact business with the Spanish minister, Mendizabal, the son of a Spanish Jew. Something connected with this loan required me to proceed straight to Paris, to consult the president of the French Council, Marshal Soult, in whom I found another Jew. Marshal Massena was also a Jew, his real name being Manasseh. Nor did my experience end here. Having a short time afterwards to go to Prussia, I was attending the council of ministers, when Count Arnim entered the cabinet, and I beheld a Prussian Jew.

From the Montreal Courier, April 12.

STRANGE MALADY IN NEW BRUNSWICK.—We translate the following from the *Quebec Canadian*: we have seen no account of the affair in any of the lower province journals as yet:—

"The Governor of New Brunswick, Sir W. Colebrooke, has sent a message to the legislature on the subject of a disorder, the most hideous and fatal, which exists among the French population on the borders of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and which the medical men of the neighborhood consider, resembles the leprosy of the 17th century. It appears that this disgusting malady made its first appearance in 1842, and that, since that year, seven persons have died of it after languishing for five or six weeks in the most miserable condition. One of these patients, who had been 'sequestree' in a log hut, and fed through a hole, died, as is believed, in a state of mental derangement, and the contagion was so much dreaded, that, in some cases, the inspector of the poor had been himself obliged to carry to these unfortunate creatures the food necessary for their subsistence, and for which, they still preserved their natural appetite and desire.

"There are at this moment twelve patients laboring under this malady in the county of Gloucester, and about the same number on the other side of the line which separates that county from that of Northumberland. Amongst the cases enumerated is that of a woman who was shipwrecked at Carraquet, on her way to Quebec, and who afterwards returned to Chatham, where the malady developed itself, and was communicated to two other persons in the family with whom she resided, and also to a child who frequented the house, who all died. It appears that the disease is invariably fatal.

"The reading the different documents which accompanied the message, excited a lively sympathy for these unfortunates. Doctors Thomson and Earl both declared their opinion that the disease was not leprosy. The former recommends above everything, to change the manner of living and food of these poor people, and to impress both on their minds and

bodies, by education and amusements, an action more healthy and vigorous. The chamber, by a unanimous vote, granted 500*l.* to the executive, to procure for these unfortunates the assistance of medicine,—to separate those who are afflicted with this horrible malady from the other inhabitants, and to ameliorate the short span of existence which remains to the afflicted."

BURIED TREASURE.—In a field at Croalchapel, near Closeburn limekilns, while Thomas Wightman was engaged, on Monday, in ploughing a piece of ground which, till last year, had not been previously turned up, having formed part of Barnmoor-wood, he came upon a large number of old silver coins of Edward I. of England, and of the Roberts and Davids of Scotland. It was considered that not fewer than 10,000 pieces were found. The discoverer of the treasure, however, was not sufficiently selfish to conceal his prize; but having given notice of the circumstance to some of his neighbors, crowds immediately assembled of men, women, and children, from all parts of the neighborhood, and numbers of the thrifty housewives were seen literally carrying away the money in lapfuls.—*Dumfries Standard*.

A MARKED MAN.—In the history of escaped convicts, there never was perhaps, one more easily recognized than one who has recently escaped from New South Wales, and is supposed to be at present in London. He is described in the *Hue and Cry*,—"Adam and Eve, tree and serpent, B. S. T. S., bust of a man, mermaid, half-moon, ship, George and the dragon, man, birds, heart and darts, hope and anchor, T., crown and flags, on the left arm; seven dots between the finger and thumb of the left hand; man and glass on the back of the left hand; ring pricked on the middle finger of left hand; two pugilists on the centre of chest. His name is Truelove Smith, and he is about 24 years of age. He was tried at Cambridge, on the 15th of May, 1830, and sentenced to transportation for life in his 10th year."

WOOD PAVING IN THE CITY.—By a decision of the Commissioners of the Court of Sewers, on Tuesday, it was determined that the plan of wood-paving should be proceeded with.

A treaty is said to be in progress to annex the principality of Oldenburg Birkenfeld, consisting of 675 geographical square miles, and about 30,000 inhabitants, to Prussia. This junction is to be effected either by exchange or purchase.

INDIA RUBBER MATTING.—The government have ordered the new garrison church at Portsmouth to be covered with this extraordinary manufacture, to prevent the soldiers from suffering from rheumatism, &c., brought on by sitting with their feet on the cold stones.

WHITE CROWS.—We were shown to-day, at a house in the Kirkgate, a brace of crows, nearly as white as snow. They are this year's birds, and were taken out of the same nest in company with a brother or sister of the ordinary color. When anxious for food, they caw their vernacular in splendid style, run about the floor, and are as well-grown as birds can well be of the same age.—*Dumfries Courier*.

DUE PROPORTIONS.—"Jock," said a farmer's wife to the herd callant,—"Jock, come in to your parritch, the flies are drowning themselves in the milk." "Nae fears," replied Jock, moving very deliberately towards the scene of action, "Nae fears, they'll wade through't." "Od, you little rascal, do you say you dinna get enough o' milk?" "Ou, ay, plenty for the parritch."

General Espartero (Duke of Victory) and his lady and niece are passing the season in comparative retirement at their villa, called Abbey-lodge, Parkroad, Regent's-park.

From the British and Foreign Review.

The Anatomy and Philosophy of Expression, as connected with the Fine Arts. By the late Sir CHARLES BELL. Third edition, enlarged. London: Murray, 1844.

THESE Essays have long been prized by those who are so fortunate as to possess even the former editions of them, as one of the most valuable contributions of English literature to the arts, and one of the most pleasing volumes of an English library. We gladly therefore announce their reëappearance in an entirely new form, rewritten, rather than revised, and with such copious additions, especially with reference to the higher branches of the subject, that they must be considered as a new work. They formed, indeed, the earliest and the latest object of their lamented author's tasteful solicitude. They were originally composed, chiefly perhaps with reference to the very striking designs of his ingenious and expressive pencil, before the serious pursuits of life began, and before his subsequent experience and reflection had given him the key to those phenomena which in art he illustrated, and explained in science. The first edition of the work appeared nearly forty years ago, in 1806, when Sir Charles Bell left Edinburgh to fix his professional residence in London. During the most active years of a life which was unceasingly devoted to the arduous duties of the medical profession, and to the promotion of the highest branches of medical science, the revisal and illustration of this volume was his habitual recreation. In 1824 a second edition was produced, with considerable additions; but from that time Sir Charles Bell resisted the demand of the public for a further issue of this book, until he should have had an opportunity of verifying his principles of criticism in art, by the study of the greatest works of the Italian masters. With this especial object, he visited the continent in 1840; a brief but extensive excursion enabled him to refresh and to corroborate those impressions and convictions which had been the delight and the study of his life; and upon his return he recomposed the whole work for a third edition. Materials were collected in abundance, and for the most part they had been already adapted to the purposes and subjects of these Essays. The text had already been prepared for the press; and the care of the editor appears to have surmounted most of the disadvantages inseparable from posthumous publication. Some of the more fugitive notes from the author's journals have been subjoined, which record with the rapid grace of an artist's pencil the vivid pleasures of an Italian journey to a man endowed with so simple a love of nature, and so cultivated a comprehension of art. These remarks bear with singular originality and acuteness on the style and the works of the great masters; and if they sometimes wear the shape of a sudden conception, rather than of mature thought, they are not the less characteris-

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tic of that ingenuity and enthusiasm which Sir Charles Bell carried as far in the practice of the fine arts as in the more profound researches of science. It deserves, indeed, to be recorded that his early studies on the subject of expression in painting, and his observation of the effects of passion and emotion on the face and frame of man, first engaged this eminent surgeon in those investigations of the nature of the nerves and of their influence on the muscles, which led to his important discoveries in the nervous system; till, as he advanced in the demonstration of those truths which he detected in the animal economy, he derived from his more extended knowledge of the physiology of man, a more complete theory of art and a more solid foundation for those principles of criticism, which no one had before applied with equal precision to the productions of the great artists. Thus he tended, by a noble sympathy between his habitual and favorite pursuits, at once to increase the sphere of knowledge and to perfect the truth of art; whilst either gift was used alike to simplify our understanding of the works of the Creator, and to raise our conceptions of natural beauty.

It has sometimes been asserted that the pursuits and practice of the medical profession tend to deaden sensibility, and to bring the loftiest and noblest powers of the human mind into too close a subjection to the conclusions of material science. The philosophy of Broussais and the heartlessness of Roux or Dupuytren, may have given a color to such imputations; but a host of names crowd upon the memory from the records of all nations, and from none more than our own, to repel the charge. The proper function of medical science in its highest sense, is not to degrade the spiritual inmate of the human frame to the level of the machinery so admirably adapted to his service, but rather to pursue through the intricacies of contrivance the purposes of life, to acknowledge the energy of being in those functions to which it imparts activity, and to trace in the mysterious sympathies and expressions of the body the higher laws of that vital power which the body obeys. To such objects as these no man ever aspired more constantly, and we will add, more devoutly, than Sir Charles Bell. His sensibility was of the most delicate kind; and his mind seemed to turn with predilection from the distressing studies of pathology to the observation of the phenomena of health. It is related of him, that in the course of his great discoveries in the nervous system, which it was absolutely necessary to carry on upon a living animal, he was arrested on the very verge of demonstration by a degree of compassion for an ass, which he could not surmount; and he declared that he had rather abandon the discovery on which his fame was to rest, than put that animal to torture. An abler hand however, in a contemporary journal, has traced the course of his professional life and his scientific discoveries; and we are most

happy to perceive that the services rendered by Sir Charles Bell to the cause of science have since been acknowledged by a pension to his widow, out of that most inadequate fund which the parsimony of Parliament has placed at the disposal of the Crown, for the reward, or rather the bare recognition, of the most important benefits which can be rendered to the nation and to humanity. The appearance of the volume before us suggests a different view of the pursuits of its distinguished author, and to that we shall exclusively confine ourselves.

Sir Charles Bell presents, we believe, a solitary instance of an extraordinary proficiency in medical science, amounting even to the genius of discovery, combined with a cultivated and profound acquaintance with the principles and practice of art. If, on the one hand, his name has been placed by a high authority in medical criticism by the side of that of Harvey, and if his investigations of the nervous system are the greatest additions to animal physiology which have been made since the discovery of the circulation of the blood; on the other hand, we venture to affirm that, as a manual to the young artist, or as a canon of sound criticism to the general reader, these Essays deserve to find a place by the side of the Discourses of Sir Joshua Reynolds. It does not, indeed, necessarily follow that a knowledge of anatomy must extend the sphere, or improve the productions of the arts. The Greeks, whose studies of the human frame were confined to the observations of the external muscles, exceeded in their statues all the performances of more scientific artists. But there is a point at which the observation of nature, the truths of science and the perfection of art, seem to meet. Under various forms and accidents the same thought is expressed—the same emotion conveyed; the mind acts visibly; the sympathy of the spectator is excited; in a word the idea assumes its form. That it is so, no one has ever doubted, and all criticism and precept has recommended the study of expression to the artist, as the beginning and the end of that language which he lends to life. But expression in the fine arts, as it is commonly understood, is the mere imitation of the natural phenomena which accompany emotion: Sir Charles Bell for the first time analyzed and explained the causes of these phenomena; he has shown what the physical effects of the emotions of the mind really are, and how they act upon the organs of life; he has brought us within another circle of those concentric laws which include the creation—a circle nearer to the centre of life and truth. In a word, in exploring the most hidden cells of our physical structure, he has brought to light truths to which the proper name of philosophy preëminently belongs. In other forms, the records of these discoveries will invite the scrutiny of the man of science; but in this volume, they may be studied in their application, without a trace of the repulsive associations of

medical literature, and with all the charm they derive from a graceful pencil and an original pen.

The following extract contains the fundamental principle on which these speculations rest:—

"We have learned enough to know that the impressions communicated by the external organs of sense belong really to the mind; and there can be no doubt that there is a mutual influence exercised by the mind and frame on each other. This is not asserted on the mere grounds that each affection which is deeply felt, is accompanied by a disturbance in our breast; nor on the language of mankind, which gives universal assent to this proposition; but it may be proved by circumstances of expression, in which we cannot be deceived. I shall make it manifest that what the eye, the ear, or the finger, is to the mind, as exciting those ideas which have been appointed to correspond with the qualities of the material world, the organs of the breast are to the development of our affections; and that without them we might see, hear, and smell, but we should walk the earth coldly indifferent to all emotions which may be said in an especial manner to animate us, and give interest and grace to human thoughts and actions.

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"The heart has an appropriate sensibility, by which it is held united in the closest connexion and sympathy with the other vital organs; so that it participates in all the changes of the general system of the body.

"But connected with the heart, and depending on its peculiar and excessive sensibility, there is an extensive apparatus which demands our attention. This is the organ of breathing: a part known obviously as the instrument of speech; but which I shall show to be more. The organ of breathing, in its association with the heart, is the instrument of expression, and is the part of the frame, by the action of which the emotions are developed and made visible to us. Certain strong feelings of the mind produce a disturbed condition of the heart; and through that corporeal influence, directly from the heart, indirectly from the mind, the extensive apparatus constituting the organ of breathing is put in motion, and gives us the outward signs which we call expression. The man was wrong who found fault with nature for not placing a window before the heart, in order to render visible human thoughts and intentions. There is, in truth, provision made in the countenance and outward bearing for such discoveries.*

"One, ignorant of the grounds on which these opinions are founded, has said, 'Every strong emotion is directed towards the heart: the heart experiences various kinds of sensation, pleasant or unpleasant, over which it has no control; and from thence the agitated spirits are diffused over the body.'

* This observation appears to have been borrowed by Sir C. Bell from a small treatise by the French physician La Chambre, entitled "l'Art de connaître l'homme." The passage may be found quoted by Lavater, in the first volume of his "Essays on Physiognomy," p. 56. Most of the principal authorities on the science are collected in the same place. The passage from Haller's "Elementa Physiologiae," tom. v., p. 590, is well worthy of notice, for it contains a careful investigation of the effects of passion on the countenance. Lavater himself applies the term *physiognomy* to the science of the features in a state of repose; and he calls the science of expression *pathognomy*, as it concerns the features under the influence of passion. But all these writers treated of the movements or form of the features as if they were directly affected by the disposition or emotions of the mind. Sir Charles Bell was the first physiologist who showed that the affections of the mind first acted upon the heart, and that, by means of the respiratory nerves, they then produced a certain reaction, which we call expression, in the countenance.

The fact is certainly so, although the language be figurative. How are these spirits diffused, and what are their effects?

"We find that the influence of the heart upon the extended organ of respiration has sway at so early a period of our existence, that we must acknowledge that the operation or play of the instrument of expression precedes the mental emotions with which they are to be joined, accompanies them in their first dawn, strengthens them, and directs them. So that it is not, perhaps, too much to conclude that, from these organs moving in sympathy with the mind, the same uniformity is produced among men, in their internal feelings, emotions, or passions, as there exists in their ideas of external nature from the uniform operations of the organs of sense.

"Let us place examples before us, and then try whether the received doctrines of the passions will furnish us with an explanation of the phenomena, or whether we must go deeper, and seek the assistance of anatomy.

"In the expression of the passions, there is a compound influence in operation. Let us contemplate the appearance of terror. We can readily conceive why a man stands with eyes intently fixed on the object of his fears, the eyebrows elevated to the utmost, and the eye largely uncovered; or why, with hesitating and bewildered steps, his eyes are rapidly and wildly in search of something. In this, we only perceive the intent application of his mind to the object of his apprehensions—its direct influence on the outward organ. But observe him further: there is a spasm on his breast, he cannot breathe freely, the chest is elevated, the muscles of his neck and shoulders are in action, his breathing is short and rapid, there is a gasping and a convulsive motion of his lips, a tremor on his hollow cheek, a gulping and catching of his throat; and why does his heart knock at his ribs, while yet there is no force of circulation?—for his lips and cheeks are ashy pale.

"So in grief, if we attend to the same class of phenomena, we shall be able to draw an exact picture. Let us imagine to ourselves the overwhelming influence of grief on woman. The object in her mind has absorbed all the powers of the frame, the body is no more regarded, the spirits have left it, it reclines, and the limbs gravitate; they are nerveless and relaxed, and she scarcely breathes; but why comes at intervals the long-drawn sigh?—why are the neck and throat convulsed?—what causes the swelling and quivering of the lips, and the deadly paleness of the face?—or why is the hand so pale and earthily cold?—and why, at intervals, as the agony returns, does the convulsion spread over the frame like a paroxysm of suffocation?

"It must, I think, be acknowledged, when we come to arrange these phenomena, these outward signs of the passions, that they cannot proceed from the direct influence of the mind alone. However strange it may sound to unaccustomed ears, it is to the heart and lungs, and all the extended instrument of breathing, that we are to trace these effects.

"Over such motions of the body the mind has an unequal control. By a strong effort the outward tokens may be restrained, at least in regard to the general bearing of the body; but who, while suffering, can retain the natural fulness of his features, or the healthful color of his cheek, the unembarrassed respiration and clearness of the natural voice? The villain may command his voice, and mask his purpose with light and libertine words, or carry an habitual sneer of contempt of all softer passions; but his unnatural paleness, and the sinking of his features, will betray that he suffers. Clarence says to his murderers,

'How deadly dost thou speak!

Your eyes do menace me: Why look you pale?'

"But the just feelings of mankind demand respect;

men will not have the violence of grief obtruded on them. To preserve the dignity of his character, the actor must permit those uncontrollable signs of suffering alone to escape, which betray how much he feels, and how much he restrains.

"Even while asleep, these interior organs of feeling will prevail, and disclose the source of expression. Has my reader seen Mrs. Siddons in Queen Katherine during that solemn scene where the sad note was played which she named her knell? Who taught the crowd sitting at a play, an audience differing in age, habits and education, to believe those quivering motions, and that gentle smile, and those slight convulsive twitchings, to be true to nature? To see every one hushed to the softest breathing of sympathy with the silent expression of the actress, exhibits all mankind held together by one universal feeling; and that feeling, excited by expression, so deeply laid in our nature, as to have influence, without being obvious to reason."

This universal meaning of expression which, as the author elsewhere observes, is to passion and the emotions of the heart what language is to thought and the operations of the mind, is con-natural with man. It precedes the first inarticulate sounds of infancy; it hovers over the closing scenes of decay and death. It speaks when speech is silent. It is the common utterance of the white man and the black, of the bondsman and the free, of savage and of civilized life. Artificial manners may mask or constraint degrade it; but they cannot obliterate it, though for its highest development it requires a life of liberty, cultivation and truth. It even creates a tie of sympathy between man and the higher animals; for in all alike the upturned eye has supplication in it, the quivering muscles are relaxed by grief, the frame is knit and the teeth set by rage. It gives to instinct the eloquence of intelligence; but it rises in man alone to the highest pitch of delicacy and variety,—to laughter and to tears,—and gradually declines as it descends the vast ladder of animated life, where it occurs as the invariable exponent of the vital powers. Such observations as these have been developed with the greatest felicity in these Essays. We select the example of the eye:—

"We have said that the eye indicates the holier emotions. In all stages of society, and in every clime, the posture and expression of reverence have been the same. The works of the great masters, who have represented the more sublime passions of man, may be adduced as evidences; by the upturned direction of the eyes, and a correspondence of feature and attitude, they address us in language intelligible to all mankind. The humble posture and raised eyes are natural, whether in the darkened chamber or under the open vault of heaven.

"On first consideration, it seems merely consistent, that when pious thoughts prevail, man should turn his eyes from things earthly to the purer objects above. But there is a reason for this, which is every way worthy of attention. When subject to particular influences, the natural position of the eyeball is to be directed upwards. In sleep, languor and depression, or when affected with strong emotions, the eyes naturally and insensibly roll upwards. The action is not a voluntary one; it is irresistible. Hence, in reverence, in devotion, in agony of mind, in all sentiments of pity, in bodily pain with fear of death, the eyes assume that position.

"Let us explain by what muscles the eyes are so

revolved. There are two sets of muscles which govern the motions of the eyeball. Four straight muscles, attached at cardinal points, by combining their action, move it in every direction required for vision, and these muscles are subject to the will. When the straight muscles, from weariness or exhaustion, cease to guide the eye, two other muscles operate to roll it upwards under the eyelid: these are the oblique muscles. Accordingly, in sleep, in fainting, in approaching death, when the four voluntary muscles resign their action, and insensibility creeps over the retina, the oblique muscles prevail, and the pupil is revolved, so as to expose only the white of the eye. It is so far consolatory to reflect, that the apparent agony indicated by this direction of the eyes, in fainting or the approach of death, is the effect of encroaching insensibility—of objects impressed on the nerve of vision being no longer perceived.

"We thus see that when wrapt in devotional feelings, and when outward impressions are unheeded, the eyes are raised, by an action neither taught nor acquired. It is by this instinctive motion we are led to bow with humility—to look upwards in prayer, and to regard the visible heavens as the seat of God.

'Prayer is the upward glancing of the eye,
When none but God is near.'

"Although the savage does not always distinguish God from the heavens above him, this direction of the eye would appear to be the source of the universal belief that the Supreme Being has His throne above. The idolatrous Negro in praying for rice and yams, or that he may be active and swift, lifts up his eyes to the canopy of the sky. So, in intercourse with God, although we are taught that our globe is ever revolving; though religion inculcates that the Almighty is everywhere, yet, under the influence of this position of the eye, which is no doubt designed for a purpose,—we seek Him on high. 'I will lift up mine eyes unto the hills from whence cometh my help.'

"See, then, how this property of our bodily frame has influenced our opinions and belief; our conceptions of the Deity, our religious observances, our poetry and daily habits."

Even the beard and hair have their appropriate meaning and effect:—

"The stages of man's life are outwardly characterized. An opinion prevails that the form and lineaments of old age are a consequence of the deterioration of the material of our frame; and that the resemblance so often drawn between an aged man leaning on his staff and a ruin tottering to its fall, is a perfect one. It is not so; the material of the frame is ever the same; years affect it not; but infancy, youth, maturity, and old age have their appropriate outward characters. Why should the forehead be bald and the beard luxuriant, if not to mark the latest epoch of man's life? or what reason can be given for the hair not growing on the chin during the vascular fullness of youth, but that it would be inconsistent with the characters of that time of life to be provided with a beard?

"When these Essays were first written, there was not a beard to be seen in England, unless joined with squalor and neglect; and I had the conviction that this appendage concealed the finest features. Being in Rome, however, during the procession of the Corpus Domini, I saw that the expression was not injured by the beard; but that it added to the dignity and character of years. It was evident that the fine heads by the old masters were copies of what were then seen in nature, though now but rarely. There were beards which nearly equalled that of the 'Moses' of Michael

Angelo in length, and which flowed like those in the paintings of Domenichino and Correggio.

"The beard is characteristic of nations. In the East it is honored, and to be shaved is the mark of a slave. A beard of three hands' breath is a goodly show; but to exceed that requires a life of repose: violent exercise in the field shortens the beard. The Turks have a very poor beard. The Persians have noble beards, and are proud of the distinction. The beard of Futteh Ali Shah, the late king of Persia, reached below his girdle, was full and fine, and remarkable in a nation of beards for having no division in the middle. Such a beard, during the active period of life, shows finely on horseback; being tossed over the shoulders in the wind, and indicating speed. In the natural beard, the hair has a peculiarity depending on the place from which it grows. The hair of the upper lip is more profuse, and even in the oldest man is of a darker hue than that of the under lip; so that falling on the lower part, it can still be distinguished as it mixes with the purer white. Again, the hair descending from the sides of the face attains a greater length than that which comes from the chin; and this is more especially the character of age.

"In the French regiments they set frightful fellows, with axes over their shoulders, to march in front: on their heads is a black bear-skin cap, of the form and dimensions of a drum, and they select men with beards of the same hue, which grow in a bush, the counterpart of that on their heads. But the face, as seen between the two black masses, is more ludicrous than terrible, and has an effect very different from what is intended. A common fellow's beard, like a common fellow's countenance, is coarse.

"Even in the Franciscan and Capuchin monks, the beard has not always the fine character displayed in the works of the old painters. Their models are gone with their times. Something excessive and ideal may be represented by the beard. Michael Angelo has, perhaps, followed Scripture, in the beard of his 'Moses,' which floats below the girdle; and in the fresco of Jeremiah, in the Sistine Chapel. The finest painting of the beard that I have seen is by Correggio, in the Scala of the Albergo dei Poveri, in Genoa, —a fresco of the Saviour, in the arms of the Almighty, where the beard of the Father flows beautifully. In short, the beard may become, with knowledge and taste, the most characteristic part in a figure.

"*Expression in the Lips and Moustaches.*—Things familiar do not always give rise to their natural association. I was led to attend more particularly to the moustaches as a feature of expression, in meeting a handsome young French soldier, coming up a long ascent in the Côté d'Or, and breathing hard, although with a good-humored, innocent expression. His sharp-pointed black moustaches rose and fell with a catamountain look that set me to think on the cause.

"Every one must have observed how the nostrils play in hard breathing. We have seen that there is a muscle which is the principal agent in this action; and it may be felt swelling during inspiration, when the finger is pressed on the upper lip, just under the nostril. It is the *depressor alae nasi*. The action of this muscle, under the roots of the hairs on the lip, sensibly moves them; and as all passionate excitements influence the respiratory actions, the nostrils and moustaches necessarily participate in the movement in violent passions. Thus, although the hair of the upper lip does conceal the finer modulations of the mouth, as in woman, it adds to the character of the stronger and harsher emotions.

"I continued to think of this in descending the Rhone, in company with some French officers, they were merry with wine, and I saw their moustaches, black, red, and white, animated in their songs and laughter; and although with a *farouche* character, these appendages rather added to than concealed expression. We see the pictorial effect in the hilarity of the Dutch boor."

It will already have been perceived from the extracts we have given, that the science of expression as it was understood by Sir Charles Bell, touched the confines of those psychological studies, which demand for their discussion the strictest accuracy of philosophical language and the careful lucidity of logical arrangement. To these abstruse inquiries, however, the peculiar qualifications and pursuits of the author did not lead him. It cannot but be regretted, for the sake of one of the most curious problems of metaphysical science, that Sir Charles Bell's attention does not appear to have been directed to Descartes' *Treatise on the Passions*, or to the few philosophical writers who have treated the subject, although with scientific attainments very far below his own. We are inclined to suspect that a more close examination of the question would have induced him to modify his opinion, that "the faculties owe their development as much to the operation of the instruments of expression as to the impressions of the outward senses." Such a doctrine would lead far into the blank labyrinth of secondary causes; it tends to convert into a fallacious original what is in truth a faithful copy or image of the mind. We cannot omit, however, one paragraph which conveys a philosophical reflection in very striking language:

"Pain is affirmed to be unqualified evil; yet pain is necessary to our existence; at birth it rouses the dormant faculties, and gives us consciousness. To imagine the absence of pain is not only to imagine a new state of being, but a change in the earth, and all upon it. As inhabitant of earth, and as a consequence of the great law of gravitation, the human body must have weight. It must have bones, as columns of support, and levers or the action of its muscles; and this mechanical structure implies a complication and delicacy of texture beyond our conception. For that fine texture a sensibility to pain is destined to be the protection; it is the safeguard of the body; it makes us alive to those injuries which would otherwise destroy us, and warns us to avoid them.

"When, therefore, the philosopher asks why were not our actions performed at the suggestions of pleasure, he imagines man, not constituted as he is, but as if he belonged to a world in which there was neither weight nor pressure, nor anything injurious,—where there were no dangers to apprehend, no difficulties to overcome, and no call for exertion, resolution, or courage. It would, indeed, be a curious speculation to follow out the consequences on the highest qualities of the mind, if we could suppose man thus free from all bodily suffering."

From these topics it is agreeable to turn to the vivid and graceful impressions, snatched alike from nature and from art, in the course of Sir Charles Bell's Italian journey. There is not a higher gratification in life,—and possibly it partakes of the enlarged pleasures of a better existence,—than to pass, prepared for the change, into a region where the visions of the fancy and the abstract truths of the intellect are realized in the most perfect forms of beauty. As our author crossed France, the southern enthusiasm kindled his artist's nature. He saw men in the novelty of

various manners, and the picturesque forms of warmer climates. Sometimes in the common accidents of life, and more frequently in the peculiarities of foreign gesticulation or the ceremonies of the Catholic church, an observation, which might have escaped a less watchful eye, went to illustrate speculations which originated in very different scenes. A man who should devote his life to pursue and to interpret the language of expression, has at once before him an endless variety in a perpetual identity,—the variety of human nature, the identity of man. To the great artists of Italy, similar scenes and observations furnished the models they so admirably imitated: to the critic in his humbler sphere, they furnish the true key to the appreciation of those works. The following passage will be read with great interest:—

"In the same day I made careful examinations of the anatomical studies of Michael Angelo, in the collection of the Grand Duke of Florence, and I compared them with his noble works in the tombs of the Medici. I observed that he had avoided the error of artists of less genius, who, in showing their learning, deviate from living nature. I recognized the utmost accuracy of anatomy in the great artist's studies; in his pen-and-ink sketches of the knee, for example, every point of bone, muscle, tendon, and ligament was marked, and perhaps a little exaggerated. But on surveying the limbs of those fine statues, this peculiarity was not visible; there were none of the details of the anatomy, but only the effects of muscular action, as seen in life, not the muscles. As, perhaps, this is the most important lesson which can be given to the artist, I shall venture to transcribe the notes I made at the time.

"The statue of Lorenzo di Medici, Duca d'Urbino, by Michael Angelo, is in the Capella di Principi, of the church of St. Lorenzo. Under the statue are two figures, one of Twilight, and the other of Daybreak. I observed in the male figure, which is of very grand proportions, the clavicle or collar bone, the head of the humerus, the deltoid and pectoral muscles developed beyond nature, yet singularly true in the anatomy. Such a shoulder was never seen in man, yet so finely is it imagined, that no one part is unduly exaggerated; but all is magnified with so perfect a knowledge, that it is just as a whole, the bone and the muscle corresponding in their proportions. In the same chapel are the statues of Giuliano di Medici, Duke of Nemours, and brother of Leo X., with the recumbent figures of Day and Night. It is in these finely conceived figures that we have the proof of Michael Angelo's genius. They may not have the perfect purity and truth that we see in the antique; but there is a magnificence, which belongs to him alone. Here we see the effect of muscular action, without affected display of anatomical knowledge. The back is marvellously fine. The position of the scapula, for example, makes its lower angle throw up the edge of the latissimus dorsi, for the scapula is forced back upon the spine, in consequence of the position of the arm. Michael Angelo must have carefully studied the anatomy in reference to the changes produced in the living body by the action of its members: the shifting of the scapula, with the consequent rising of the mass of muscles, some in action, some merely pushed into masses, are very finely shown."*

"Having just come from observing his sketches of the anatomy of the knee-joint, I was curious in my

* "I might make similar remarks on the statue by John of Bologna,—Januarius sitting, shivering under a shower, in a fountain in the Villa Petraia, near Florence."

observation of the manner in which he made his knowledge available in the joints of these fine statues; and they gave rise to the following remarks.

"If an artist, with a knowledge of the structure, should look upon the knee in a bent position, he will recognize the different bones and ligaments. But if he look upon it in an extended position of the limb, or during exertion, he will not distinguish the same parts. The contour, the swelling of the integument, and the fulness around the joint, are not produced by the forms of the bones, but by the rising up of the parts displaced by the new position of the bones. The fatty cushions which are within and external to the knee-joint, and which serve the purpose of friction-wheels in the play of the bones upon each other, no longer occupy the same relative places; they are protruded from the depth of the cavity to the surface. How well Michael Angelo knew this, these statues of Day and Night evince.

"In these statues, great feeling of art and genius of the highest order have been exhibited; anatomical science, ideal beauty, or rather grandeur, combined. It is often said that Michael Angelo studied the Belvidere Torso, and that he kept it continually in his eye. That fine specimen of ancient art may have been the authority for his grand development of the human muscles; but it did not convey to him the effect which he produced by the throwing out of those magnificent and giant limbs. Here we see the vigor of this sculptor's stroke and the firmness of his touch, as well as his sublime conception of the human figure. We can imagine that he wrought by no measure or mechanical contrivance; that he hewed out the marble as another would cast together his mass of clay in a first sketch. Many of his finest works are left unfinished; it appears that he found the block of marble in some instances too small, and left the design incomplete. For my own part I feel that the finish and smoothness of the marble is hardly consistent with the vigor of Michael Angelo's conceptions; and I should regret to think that such a genius should have wasted an hour in giving softness or polish to the surface.

"Who is there, modern or ancient, that would thus voluntarily encounter all the difficulties of the art and throw the human body into this position, or who could throw the shoulder into this violent distortion, and yet preserve the relations of the parts, of bone and muscle, with such scientific exactness? We have in this great master a proof of the manner in which genius submits to labor, in order to attain perfection. He must have undergone the severe toil of the anatomist to acquire such a power of design, which it was hardly to be supposed could be sufficiently appreciated then or now.

"Without denying the beauty or correctness of the true Grecian productions of the chisel, they ought not to be contrasted with the works of Michael Angelo to his disadvantage. He had a noble conception of the august form of man; to my thinking, superior to anything exhibited in ancient sculpture. Visconti imputes inferiority to Buonarroti; and, to confirm his views, compares the antique statues restored by him with the limbs and heads which he added. But I can conceive nothing less suited to the genius of the artist than this task of modelling and adjusting a limb in a different position from that which is entire, and yet so as to preserve the proportions and character of the whole. The manner of his working, and the urgency of his genius for an unrestrained field of exertion, unfitted him for that kind of labor, while it is a matter of necessity that a copy shall be inferior to an original.

"What the figures of Night and Morning had to do before the degenerate son of the Medici is another matter. They seem to have been placed there as mere ornaments, and in the luxury of talent, to give the form and posture of the human figure, *"per ornamento e per solo spoggio di giacitura e de' forme."*

"When in Rome I was impatient until I stood before the statue of Moses, so much had been said of its extraordinary merit, and also so much of its defects. It is a noble figure, with all the energy of Buonarroti displayed in it. It is not the anatomy alone which constitutes its perfection; but there is the same mind displayed in the attitude, the habili-ment, the beard, and all the accompaniments, as in the vigor of the naked shoulders and arms. It is the realization of his high conception of the human figure."

Sir Charles Bell inclines to give to the great sculptors of Italy a preference over the artists even of Greece, probably from the excellence of the former in that kind of powerful expression and character which he himself was best able to appreciate. Yet his criticisms on the "Laocoon" and the "Dying Gladiator" are of great value. We can only make room for the latter:—

"The 'Dying Gladiator' is one of those masterpieces of antiquity which exhibits a knowledge of anatomy and of man's nature. He is not resting; he is not falling; but in the position of one wounded in the chest, and seeking relief in that anxious and oppressed breathing which attends a mortal wound with loss of blood. He seeks support to his arms, not to rest them or to sustain the body, but to fix them, that their action may be transferred to the chest, and thus assist the laboring respiration. The nature of his sufferings leads to this attitude. In a man expiring from loss of blood, as the vital stream flows, the heart and lungs have the same painful feeling of want, which is produced by obstruction to the breathing. As the blood is draining from him he pants and looks wild, and the chest heaves convulsively. And so the ancient artist has placed this statue in the posture of one who suffers the extremity of difficult respiration. The fixed condition of the shoulders, as he sustains his sinking body, shows that the powerful muscles, common to the ribs and arms, have their action concentrated to the struggling chest. In the same way does a man afflicted with asthma rest his hands or his elbows upon a table, stooping forward that the shoulders may become fixed points; the muscles of the arm and shoulder then act as muscles of respiration, and aid in the motion of the chest, during the heaving and anxiety which belong to the disease."

We conclude with a passage which has much of the grandeur of those exalted works by which it appears to have been suggested:—

"There is a link of connexion between all liberal professions. The painter may borrow from the physician. He will require something more than his fancy can supply, if he has to represent a priestess or a sybil. It must be the creation of a mind, learned as well as inventive. He may readily conceive a female form full of energy, her imagination at the moment exalted and pregnant, so that things long past are painted in colors as if they stood before her, and her expression becomes bold and poetical. But he will have a more true and precise idea of what is to be depicted, if he reads the history of that melancholia which undoubtedly, in early times, has given the idea of one possessed with a spirit. A young woman is seen constitutionally pale and languid; and from this inanimate state no show of affection or entreaty will draw her into conversation with her family. But how changed is her condition, when instead of the lethargy and fixed countenance, the circulation is suddenly restored, the blood mounts to her cheeks, and her eyes sparkle, while both in mind

and body she manifests an unwonted energy, and her whole frame is animated. During the continuance of the paroxysm, she delivers herself with a force of thought and language, and in a tone so greatly altered, that even her parents say, 'She is not our child, she is not our daughter, a spirit has entered into her.' This is in accordance with the prevailing superstition of antiquity; for how natural to suppose, when this girl again falls into a state of torpor, and sits like a marble statue, pale, exhausted, taciturn, that the spirit has left her. The transition is easy; the priests take her under their care, watch her ravings and give them meaning, until she sinks again into a death-like stupor or indifference.

"Successive attacks of this kind impress the countenance indelibly. The painter has to represent features powerful, but consistent with the maturity and perfection of feminine beauty. He will show his genius by portraying not only a fine female form with the grandeur of the antique, but a face of peculiar character; embodying a state of disease often witnessed by the physician, with associations derived from history. If on the dead and uniform paleness of the face he bestows that deep tone of interest which belongs to features inactive, but not incapable of feeling; if he can show something of the imprint of long suffering isolated from human sympathy, throw around her the appropriate mantle, and let the fine hair fall on her shoulders, the picture will require no golden letters to announce her character, as in the old paintings of the Sybil or the Pythoness."

To such fragments as these nothing need be added. It is well that the discoveries and the reflections of such a mind should be placed within the reach of the public at large in an accessible and attractive form. The truest acknowledgment of the services rendered by such men is the respect which every one may pay to their literary remains; and we are persuaded that the success of this volume will not be inferior to that of the admirable treatise on the Hand, and not unworthy of its accomplished author's lasting fame.

TAHITI.—The report of Admiral Thouars respecting the late events at Tahiti, has given occasion for an unusual display of the sensitiveness of our Gallic neighbors on any point in the slightest manner reflecting upon the national honor. If anything were wanting to justify the recall of Admiral Thouars, ample reason would be found in the report which he has just made. In speaking of the English missionaries, he has both gone out of the way, and exhibited either his ignorance or his malignity by describing them "as men chosen from the very dregs of society in London; taken from among laborers, such as blacksmiths, carpenters, and others of that class." It is almost needless for us to make any remarks upon such a statement; but we cannot refrain from offering a comment in the shape of an extract from a description of the condition of this same island by the present Minister of Marine, to whom, unhappily for Admiral Thouars, but happily for the cause of humanity and truth, his report was made. A few years since the present Minister of Marine visited Tahiti, and this is his description of the island under the influence of these low-born missionaries:—

"The state of the island of Tahiti is now very different from what it was in the days of Cook. The missionaries of the Society of London have

entirely changed the manners and customs of the inhabitants. Idolatry exists no longer; they profess generally the Christian religion; the women no longer come on board the vessels, and they are very reserved on all occasions. Their marriages are celebrated in the same manner as in Europe, and the king confines himself to one wife. The women are also admitted to the table with their husbands. The infamous society of the Arreois exists no longer; the bloody wars in which the people engaged, and human sacrifices, have entirely ceased since 1816. All the natives can read and write, and have religious books translated into their language, printed either at Tahiti, Ulitea, or Eimeo. They have built handsome churches, where they repair twice in the week, and show the greatest attention to the discourses of the preacher. It is common to see numerous individuals take notes of the most interesting passages of the sermons they hear."

We have before us a letter from a Frenchman at Tahiti, and published in a French paper, which bears a similar honorable testimony to the happy results of the labors of English missionaries; and which states that five-eighths of the natives can read and write. Would that we could say the same of France, two-thirds of the population of which country are in a state of gross ignorance, no less than 17,000,000 of them being unable either to read or write.

A letter from Stockholm, says—"The late king, who died intestate, has left an immense fortune in landed property alone, consisting chiefly in vast domains and iron mines, situated in almost all parts of the kingdom, even in Lapland, which are estimated at eighty millions of francs.

A return of the yearly income and expenditure of the board for the encouragement of trade and manufactures in Scotland, gives the total amount of the income of the board as 4,539*l.*, and the expenditure 4,217*l.*

A cast-iron pulpit has been erected in the Jewish Synagogue, Seel street, Liverpool. This is said to be the first regular pulpit erected in a Jewish place of worship in this kingdom.

A grant of 1,000*l.*, being the first grant from the fund of 10,000*l.* voted by Parliament, for the purpose of providing public walks for the use of the inhabitants of large towns, has been allotted to Oldham.

COMMUNION SERVICES FOR THE NAVY.—Ten services of communion-plate are ordered to be sent to each dock-yard, to be placed in charge of the storekeepers, who are to furnish each ship to which a chaplain is appointed with one service of plate. It is to be given in charge to the chaplain, who will be held responsible for it.

SCRIPTURE READERS.—A society has just been established entitled "An Association for Providing Scripture-readers in connection with the Church of England," under the sanction of the Bishops of London and Winchester.

MR. CHARLES DICKENS is going to Italy at the end of June for a sojourn of some months. He also intends visiting France and Switzerland. We believe we may expect another "Christmas Carol," and also a fiction of greater magnitude and more coherent purpose than he has yet accomplished.

From the British and Foreign Review.

1. *Stories of the Gods and Heroes of Greece, told by Berthold Niebuhr to his Son.* Translated from the German. Edited by SARAH AUSTIN. J. W. Parker, London, 1843.
2. *The Home Treasury.* Edited by FELIX SUMMERLY. London: J. Cundall, 1843.
3. *Puss in Boots:* illustrated by OTTO SPECKTER. London: J. Murray, 1843.

IF as much ingenuity had been expended in tracing the origin and causes of what is called national character, as in inventing hypotheses to account for it, we might perhaps by this time have arrived at some knowledge of the great secret of moulding the moral form of man. But in all that has been said or written on this subject, it is no less remarkable than melancholy how little evinces any humane intention, how little has been productive of the smallest good, how little shows any knowledge, or even any desire to obtain knowledge, of the secret causes which so powerfully modify our common nature. Striking contrasts and brilliant sketches, unfair satire and passionate invective,—or, at the best, fanciful theories,—have been lavished on a subject deserving the most profound, cautious and candid examination. For it ought to be the common labor of the wise and good to understand and correct the variations—be they what they may—of the human mind from the pole of truth. National vanity and national antipathy ought to yield to that benign humanity which looks down upon all infirmities with equal pity, and deems no question insignificant, no labor irksome, no sacrifice painful, so that it can trace one error to its source and then destroy it forever. But we may hope that the bitter and causeless hate of nations is dying away; we at least, in England, are no longer convinced that an unusual garment is a sign of depraved morals, or a strange dish a proof of an imbecile intellect; and if it be true that some of our neighbors still cling to the dream of a monopoly of excellence, we at least must renounce all such extravagant pretensions for ourselves with still greater eagerness than we deny them to others. The time is come when patient and benevolent research may be applied to the important subject of the moral differences in the human family, with a view to mutual correction and improvement.

It has often struck us that a humble, though not unimportant, and certainly not an uninteresting branch of this inquiry would relate to the books written professedly for children. Often, while turning from the practical and positive children's books of England to the more imaginative and tender infant literature of Germany, we have asked ourselves, how far each was the cause, how far the effect or the expression, of national character. If, as we are persuaded, they are both the one and the other, there can be no doubt as to the course which reason and conscience would dictate

to all those who have the business of administering mental food to the infant generation, whether parents, writers, or publishers. Whatever were the reigning prejudice, the common defect, the darling sin of the country in which they live,—whatever the epidemic prevailing in the moral or intellectual atmosphere in which the infant mind has to develop itself,—they would anxiously withhold all that could dispose it to receive the contagion,—they would provide whatever could correct the noxious influences. Unfortunately all—parents, writers and publishers—do the very reverse of this; the first, from ignorance, fashion, and prejudice; the second, from these mingled with pecuniary interest; the third, mainly from the latter motive. Accordingly, whatever be the common obliquity of the old, it is sure to be consciously or unconsciously assumed and prescribed as the *norm* or pattern for the young;—in England, devotion to material objects and social distinctions, flat empiricism, blind religious antipathy; in France, monstrous national conceit, adoration of military renown, and love of theatrical effects; in Germany, misty abstractions and unprofitable *sensiblerie*. Such are among the qualities, the reproduction of which seems destined to be eternal, and which go to form what is called national character. We know few things more useful, few that would require more sound and enlarged philosophy, than a fair comparison and complete analysis of the children's books of these three nations, so nearly on a level in civilization, so different in spirit. They are the mould in which each generation fashions the succeeding one to its own image, the link which connects the mind already formed to the tone and temper of its nation with that yielding mind which has its impressions to receive and its bent to take. That which is effected in infancy, by these unregarded instruments, could never be accomplished at a later stage of life by all the weight of science or all the persuasion of eloquence. The imagination has taken its tone, the heart has conceived the wishes, the hopes, the objects, which will be the springs of action through life. The studies of the man may awaken reflection or impart knowledge, but the first books which stirred his fancy or touched his heart are those which gave an indelible color to his character.

In every country and age children's books will partake of the prevailing tone of literature; or, rather we should say, in the fresh and vigorous stage of literature there will exist no such thing as children's books; because the books fitted to delight a simple and imaginative people will also delight children. So long as the literature of England retained its pith and vigor, its simplicity of style and fulness of thought and fancy, we hear nothing of children's books. "Robinson Crusoe" and "Pilgrim's Progress," the two books which have probably been read by a greater number and with greater interest and deeper effect than any others, were certainly not written for children.

But as this creative power and simple grandeur were extinct, or nearly so, in the seventeenth century,—as the eighteenth, critical and sceptical, could create nothing that children or child-like men could care to read, it became necessary to *make* books professedly and specially for the entertainment of children, a sort of *industrie* never enough to be deplored. Berquin, Madame de Genlis, and a host of imitators in France, Germany and England, sent forth, for the enfeeblement and demoralization of the young world, a mass of affectations and simulations of virtue, pretty much alike in design, but colored in each country to suit the national taste; till at length they attained such a pitch of mawkishness, that the whole race of faultless, theatrical, preaching and whining papas and mammas, aunts and children, became intolerable and gave place to better things. The original aim of this class of books was “to check the immorality of the age.” In many writers this was no doubt sincere,—in many it was affected,—in all absurd. The cause of virtue is not to be served by falsehood, and all affectation is falsehood.

This most tiresome and unprofitable class of fictions may be considered to be extinct: it was succeeded by one of a very different character.

The beginning of the present century was marked by a tendency to what the French call material improvement, which has since spread widely and rapidly. From the time when the excitement of war ceased, the minds of Englishmen became absorbed in the pursuits which conduce to wealth or to the physical well-being of man. This movement was instantly accompanied by a corresponding change in the character of children's books. All that could tend to nourish the imagination, or to suggest reflection on the unseen, (self-reflection included,) was rejected as useless and even pernicious. Not only the mawkish modern fictions, but the delightful stories in which were embodied the fancy, the tenderness, the humor, the wisdom of ages,—which had travelled from the remotest climes, and found acceptance among people in every stage of culture, which with some slight change of costume or of incident had been adopted into every tongue,—were denounced as absurd and false. Babes and sucklings were made judges of evidence and calculators of probabilities; and the good-natured old man, who thought to amuse his infant hearer with what had delighted himself, was silenced by the preliminary inquiry, if it was all *true*? If even Mrs. Barbauld's matchless infants' books were tolerated, it was because they contained some “useful facts,” and not for the engaging charm of their childish prattle, or the poetical and religious feeling which pervades them. Facts were now the order of the day.

There is no doubt that the originators of this movement were earnest and sincere reformers. Insofar as their object was to substitute such information as could, by any artifice, be made pal-

atable to children, or such lessons in domestic morality and the conduct of ordinary life as could be illustrated by stories, for the feeble and vulgar dregs of the Berquin school, it was laudable and successful. What they undertook to drive out of the field, was equally devoid of imagination and good sense, or what is called practical knowledge. The time was come when one of these was indispensable.

It belonged to the temper of the age and of the country we live in to choose the latter. One or two admirable and popular writers of children's books did much to sanction and adorn this taste; but in fact they only obeyed an impulse, which it would have required much greater strength than they possessed to resist. They were among the organs and illustrators of a great tendency. The only objects deemed worth striving after are wealth and political or social consideration. To obtain these, a man must be possessed of some art or knowledge, by which he can make himself immediately useful or acceptable to those who have wealth and consideration to bestow: hence moral science fell into complete neglect, and may be said no longer to have a place in England. The highest speculations, if unconnected with polemical theology, (and hence with political and social power,) have no audience. The cultivation of the reason, the study of the spiritual nature and destiny of man, require more time and abstraction from the world than a competitor in the actual race of life has to give. To what end, then, develop in the child a taste for the impalpable—the unreal, as it is called? We will not say that this train of reasoning passed distinctly through the minds of the makers of children's books; but, by instinct or by design, they acted under the prevailing social influences. It is sufficiently evident that the heart and the fancy of childhood cannot take in the objects which fill the minds of “practical” full-grown men; the only means of fitting them for the reception of such views, is to wean them from the bright visions and wandering speculations which are their natural element. Children, therefore, were to be seduced into practical studies by those monsters—formed of more heterogeneous parts than sphinx or chimæra—stories to teach facts or morals, or more honestly forced to swallow the chaff of catechisms and compendiums as food. Accordingly, the starry sky, inviting to wonder and worship,—the beautiful flowers and animals, objects of its tender care and sympathy, and personages of many a pretty and touching drama,—the wide and strange world, and the adventures of its hardy explorers,—the heart-stirring events and awful figures of history,—all in short that could inspire love, pity, reverence and religion, were made the subject of catechisms. We once heard a child say, that she had learned thirteen of these instruments of mental torture and compression by heart. We need not say that the poor thing had, in the operation, lost the peculiar faculties with which heaven in

its wisdom has endowed the newly-awakened soul. It had (not willingly indeed) bartered its birth-right for a mess of pottage,—the sense of the great, the wonderful and the beautiful, the power of placing these in countless combinations,—for the memory of barren facts of weight, number and measure, of which it could know neither the connexion nor the evidence.

It may be said that this is an extreme case:—we willingly admit it. We are far from denying that in many books, of great excellence in their kind, the facts are well selected and amusingly told, and that they are often such as it is a matter of conventional necessity to know,—if indeed we may abuse the word *knowledge* for the mere passive reception of certain assertions, which we take on credit. Such admission of unconnected and undigested matter into the mind can of course never be productive of any moral growth or fruit, and should pass for exactly what it is worth,—a convenient conformity to general usage. Works of the kind in question do perhaps sometimes answer a higher end,—that namely of stimulating the curiosity of children; and if that curiosity is then allowed free course and ample food, an active, fruitful mind may be developed; but we suspect this is very rarely the case.

In the whole of this large class of books England is preëminent, and is justly regarded on the Continent as the 'great fountain of nursery learning. The excellence of the workmanship is as little to be denied as that of the intention. A still more valuable preëminence is the unhesitating confidence with which the most careful mothers in Germany give their children English books, compared with the cautious admission of those of other countries. We have remarked with pride, that even those who cannot read English themselves, rest on the generally recognized safe morality of our books for childhood and youth, with a security which will we trust never be deceived.

But while we gladly do homage to all that is praiseworthy in such productions, we confess that we doubt whether the well-meant endeavor to bring everything down to the level of a child's mind, or to cram it with heterogenous particulars, be favorable to the production or nurture of any large intellect or elevated character. To speak plainly, we are convinced it is not. We complain, and with justice, of the universal diffusion of slight and superficial knowledge—the neglect of philosophy, the reign of empiricism in every branch of science, the absence of all æsthetical culture, the dearth of originality. And how do we attempt to remedy these defects? We give to our children books which are exactly adapted to lay on a varnish of science and literature over the whole surface of society, and to check the natural workings of the infant mind. It is not only the imagination, but the reason of children that is stifled. We have repeatedly seen, and never without wonder at the conceit it betrayed, a book taken out of the

hand of an eager, attentive child, "because he could not understand it;" as if any human being would, for his own amusement, continue to read words to which he affixed no meaning. "Oh but," we are told, "he would understand them imperfectly." And what then? If you desire that your child should grow tall and erect, do you confine him in a room, the ceiling of which is exactly as high as his head? If you wish his body to unfold itself and acquire bulk and vigor, do you swathe it in tight bandages? Yet such is exactly the moral practice of good and careful mothers with their children. Nay, the absurdity and cruelty is in this case even greater; for the height and bulk of the body can be ascertained, but who shall take measure of that most wondrous, variable, quick and busy spirit, the mind of a young child? Who shall say that, because it does not understand a thing to-day, it will not understand it to-morrow? An hour, a minute, is often sufficient to suggest new trains of thought and open new combinations of facts. And what a burst of the young buds of reason and imagination have we witnessed, when a child has been left to its own unaided selection among books which it could not understand! At first the little discoverer has to grope his way through occasional darkness; but the lights that break in upon him are the brighter for the contrast, and lead him on with all the ardor of hope. How far more stimulating than the monotonous twilight to which you would condemn him! "The only books from which we really learn," says Göthe, "are those which we cannot judge. The author of a book which we are capable of judging must learn of us."

The early history and training of the greatest men is a subject of the deepest interest, and we have always been extremely anxious to see what were the books from which they received their first impressions. As yet it has not happened to us to have read of or known a person of vigorous and original mind, who had not been allowed free access to strong meat, as soon as the appetite for it was excited.

An equally empty pretension is that of "forming the taste" of children, by pointing out the beauties of what they read. This is exactly the process by which to secure their having no taste at all. Beauty wants no showman or direct expositor; she reveals herself to the eyes prepared to behold her; till they are so, there is nothing to be done. She reveals herself, too, under a thousand different aspects; each of us must behold her as he can,—as his gifts and opportunities will allow. It is easy to make a child repeat after its mother or teacher that a passage is beautiful, but no real intuition of beauty was ever the result of any such process. The taste may be, and ought to be, cultivated, but by negative rather than positive means,—by placing within reach the best and highest models, on which the imagination and judgment can exercise themselves, and still more

by carefully removing all that could corrupt, enfeeble or debase them. For this reason it is obvious that our remarks do not apply to parents who fill their houses with the common trash of circulating libraries and book-societies. An informed mind left to itself, among the noxious stimulants, or no less enervating common-place superficiality of a literature written in and for idleness, must come to all the maturity it can ever attain, without having had a glimpse of the great, the beautiful, or the true. These are to be found in the works of genius, purged and sanctified by time. An active, susceptible mind, permitted to hold early converse with antiquity, and with the noble spirits of the best days of modern Europe, will stand the fairest chance of becoming original, discriminating and elevated, and at the same time simple and reverential. And such reading is the most inviting to a healthy mind. How captivating to children is the simplicity of Herodotus! We have seen a little girl, who could but just read, leave her children's books and return to him again and again. Xenophon is scarcely less engaging. Plutarch, as full of noble and gentle sentiments as of interesting events, attaches all generous children. The want of good and agreeable translations of these and other writers of antiquity, is a great evil; they would be read by children and by the people, who would not only be won by their simplicity, but elevated by their grandeur. A free acquaintance with great models is absolutely indispensable to the formation of that discriminating sense of the beautiful which we call taste, and this acquaintance cannot begin too soon. In like manner, it is not by telling a child that this or that picture is fine, but by giving it, from the very first, the best copies or prints we can command of the greatest masters, and keeping out of its way all mediocrity, that a pure, sound and unerring taste can be formed.

We must say here, that we are not in general great friends of "illustrated" books for children—nor indeed for anybody, but that is beside the purpose. The artist gives his own conceptions, often very prosaic or very false, and this anticipates or thwarts the workings of the child's imagination. No expedient could be more ingeniously contrived to make it dull, cold and barren. Let the images have what merit they may, the mere fact that they are passively received, instead of being created and combined, is enough. The best pictures to children's books therefore are the rudest, which are merely suggestive. Pictures without text have a wholly different effect; there the child's imagination furnishes the story, as in the other it furnishes the forms. Otto Speckter's charming designs for "Puss in Boots" are fitted for adults, not for little children; they contain traits of wit and humor which cannot be appreciated without a knowledge of the world; such, for instance, as the opprobrious treatment which clearly awaits all dogs under the feline ascendancy (as exemplified

in the last plate)—a stroke of political satire which no child, one hopes, could enter into.

Our own language furnishes a boundless store of enticing and invigorating food. The immortal works of Bunyan and Defoe—those wells of pure, unadulterated English—have been the delight, the passion of many of the greatest and wisest men of the last generation. We have seen Shakspeare read and re-read by children of seven or eight years old with an intensity of interest and pleasure, very different in kind, no doubt, but equal in degree to any he could excite in the most learned and sagacious of his commentators. What can be more likely to touch the young heart with a love of nature, a tender concern for all that feels, a sense of the wonder and beauty of creation, and the wisdom and love of its Creator, than that most charming and English of books, White's "History of Selbourne?" where the simplicity of the man is so exquisitely set off with the graces of the gentleman and the scholar, and so sanctified by those of the Christian. Where is the child's natural history book comparable to this? Why are such books as Anson's Voyages, and all the host of similar records of skill and intrepidity, to be altered and curtailed till they have lost all truth and vigor? The relations of travellers have each a characteristic stamp, which is not among their least interesting qualities; this is necessarily effaced in abridgments.

One great evil of professed children's books is their shortness. Children are now so accustomed to the stimulus of incessant variety, to turn from book to book and from subject to subject, that the power of steady and unforced application is daily becoming more rare. At a later age, when the necessities of life require it, this has to be painfully acquired, often to the destruction of health of body and mind. This was not the case when a child had to seek out his amusement in folio histories or quarto travels, as Göthe tells us he did in Gottfried's Chronicle and the "Acessa Philologica." We remember hearing a woman of the last generation, whose intellectual qualities were only inferior to her moral, (if indeed we can separate what had the same stamp of energy, justness and greatness,) say, that the earliest book she remembered being interested in was Rapin's "History of England." Her sister, two or three years older than herself, read it to her aloud; it was their free unbidden choice. We imagine the two little girls seated on low stools, the elder with the huge folio on her knees, the younger in all the radiant beauty of a golden-haired English child, with her doll in her arms, listening with fixed attention, and day after day following the driest of historians through his ponderous work. Exquisite and true picture, which we commend to any painter who could conceive it! he will find no living models for it. In this case, not only an intellect and a character of the highest order were developed, but a style of writing and speaking,

distinguished for vernacular purity, clearness and precision, was formed, by the mere access to a library composed of the classics of the English language. Nothing else came in her way. She was taught little (which, with an over-estimate of what she did not possess, she always unduly regretted,) nor was she either commanded or forbidden to read anything. She had much to do, and little external excitement; it was presumed that reading must be her pleasure, and her father possessed no trash. We have quoted an individual case, because we happen to know it intimately; but we have had an insight, less near, but still sufficient to corroborate this, into several others, especially among women. Nearly all those we have known who rose much above the average of their sex had pretty nearly a similar mental training, or rather growth.

We shall be asked if then we pretend that no books should be written for children? Certainly not; for though we are convinced that the highest order of minds must be produced by this process of free internal development, yet there remains a vast middle class who are not capable of sufficient independent action to carry them through such a process. These are the children whose imaginations are too feeble and inert to seize on half-understood images, to work on hints, to supply what their imperfect knowledge of facts leaves broken or defective. There are others whose reasoning faculty is too sluggish to delight in combining and inferring, (the never-ceasing occupation of intelligent children,) or whose curiosity is not robust enough to endure the fatigue of much toil in search of sustenance. For such as these, it is necessary to clear away the difficulties which afford wholesome exercise to stronger minds,—to deal in simple, clear, direct narrative,—to give inferences and conclusions ready made,—to point out the *why* and the *because*. It is not that much will come of such a training; but the faculties, which would never struggle into life if left to themselves, may be nurtured, not into vigor, but at least into existence. What we protest against is the tyranny of prejudging the case, and subjecting all alike to a regimen fit only for the infirm. Let the robust choose their own diet. No test is required but the child's own inclination, provided always that wholesome food, *and no other*, is within his reach; if his faculties are of the kind capable of self-development, he will do the rest for himself.

Of course all this has not the smallest reference or application to the process of learning, properly so called, which is the appropriate labor and duty of childhood—the burden it ought to bear, and will bear, gallantly and well, if there is no attempt at tricks to disguise it. Toil is the portion of us all; this is *your* present lot of toil; in time it may, if you choose, bring you advantage and pleasure:—such is the language to hold to children, whom it is neither easy nor safe to mys-

tify. School, or whatever be the substitute for it, is the appropriate sphere for the exercise of the attention and the memory—for compulsory application to uninviting things, and conformity to rules not understood; in short, for discipline—great and glorious nurse of *men*, whose godlike face a womanish and mistaken tenderness has sought to mask; not perceiving how easily unspoiled childhood learns to love her awful beauty and to trust in her truthful promises; while those of the flatterer, who talks to it of learning without labor, are felt to be false long before they are found to be destructive. School-books, therefore, can hardly be too special, nor school methods too rigorously calculated: all latitude or choice is misplaced here.

By children's books are generally meant books which children voluntarily read, and to those our observations are confined. We perceive with pleasure that a reaction is taking place in favor of the only class of books which we admit to be *necessarily* appropriate to children—we mean fairy tales, or to borrow from the German the more comprehensive word for wonderful stories and legends—*Märchen*. The series of little books included under the title of “The Home Treasury,” which appears at the head of this article, is one indication of this change, and provides well and usefully for a demand which is rapidly increasing. The tales that have hitherto appeared are edited with good taste and judgment, and are rendered in every way attractive to the eye; their real charm is however deeper and far more valuable. The announcement of this series will explain its intention; in its general spirit we entirely agree—how far we may differ, with respect to the value of illustrations, will appear from our previous remarks.

“The character of most children's books published during the last quarter of a century is fairly typified in the name of Peter Parley, which the writers of some hundreds of them have assumed. The books themselves have been addressed, after a narrow fashion, almost entirely to the cultivation of the understanding of children. The many tales sung or said from time immemorial, which appealed to the other, and certainly not less important, elements of a little child's mind, its fancy, imagination, sympathies, affections, are almost all gone out of memory, and are scarcely to be obtained. ‘Little Red Riding Hood,’ and other fairy tales hallowed to children's use, are now turned into ribaldry as satires for men; as for the creation of a new fairy tale or touching ballad, such a thing is unheard of. That the influence of all this is hurtful to children, the conductor of this series firmly believes. He has practical experience of it every day in his own family, and he doubts not that there are many others who entertain the same opinions as himself. He purposes at least to give some evidence of his belief, and to produce a series of works, the character of which may be briefly described as anti-Peter-Parleyism. Some will be new works, some new combinations of old materials, and some reprints, carefully cleared of impurities, without deterioration to the points of the story. All will be illustrated, but not after the usual fashion of children's books, in which it seems to be

assumed that the lowest kind of art is good enough to give first impressions to a child. In the present series, though the statement may perhaps excite a smile, the illustrations will be selected from the works of Raffaele, Titian, Hans, Holbein and other old masters. Some of the best modern artists have kindly promised their aid in creating a taste for beauty in little children."

Let no one imagine we consider it a matter of pride or congratulation, that fairy tales lose their magic power over the mature man. On the contrary, it is because it is the exclusive prerogative, the divine gift of childhood, wholly to enjoy and half to believe these delightful fictions, that we shall ever condemn the presumptuous rebellion against nature which the withholding of them supposes. We look upon children who have been deprived of this poetry of infancy as defrauded not only of an intense pleasure, never to be regained, but of one important part of their internal development, which, if checked in its natural season, is destroyed forever. The idea that children will, in the face of their daily experience, continue to believe in talking birds and flying dragons, in giants that eat little boys, or fairies that change mice into footmen, is too absurd to be answered; there is not the smallest danger of the kind. But there is a danger that children brought up to imagine they know what is true, and nothing but what is true, and to have no sympathy with the invisible, should end by feeling nothing and believing nothing but objects of sense.

We do not find in fairy-tales the smallest danger of injury to the reasoning faculty, the paramount importance of which we fully acknowledge. The inductive faculty, so far from being weak, is peculiarly strong in childhood:—why?—because their learning or experience enables them to judge of the truth or falsehood of the data on which they reason? Not a whit: they *know* nothing of the kind; they may be told this or that, but all the phenomena of nature are new to them, and may, for aught they know, be new to the world—that is, supernatural. The clearness and precision of their inferences arise wholly from other causes. They have no interest and no prejudice—no favor and no false shame; in their natural state they go straight on to a consequence, with a fearless justness which we have often admired—admired with a melancholy feeling that it could not last. It is the world and its vile realities, its interests and its constraints, and not fairy tales, that stunt and distort the noblest of all our faculties. The robbing us of the one next to it in dignity—imagination—will not help us.

We reluctantly notice an objection, which will probably be made, to permitting children to read books written for men; we mean on the score of what is called their impropriety. There is little use in reasoning with persons who believe that virtue is to be secured by enfeebling the mind and character, or whose powers of observation and deduction are so small as to render them inacces-

sible to evidence. Those who have duly reflected on the nature of a child's mind, on the subjects which are fitted to excite its interest, and to which alone it can, by its organization and the range of its experience, be awake, will need no evidence indeed to convince them that these timorous and misplaced precautions are not only useless, but pernicious;—useless, inasmuch as a young child in its natural state is utterly unconscious of, and indifferent to, the class of subjects which are supposed by its elders, (from their own lamentable self-knowledge,) to have such dangerous attraction for it; and pernicious, because the whole force of that attraction, whatever it be, is thus reserved for the moment at which it is really felt, and consequently really dangerous. It will not be pretended that, as far as boys are concerned, it is possible by external precautions to defer free converse with books longer. The period of emancipation from the restraints of childhood must leave a young man to the guidance of his own taste, reason and conscience, in the choice of his reading; and woe to him if he has no better safeguard than the entire novelty of every coarse expression or equivocal allusion!

With regard to the other sex, the same impossibility does not exist. A careful mother may prolong indefinitely the vigilant *surveillance* of her daughter's reading, and we are assured that in France this is actually the case. Up to the time of their marriage, when this and other restrictions drop at once, young ladies not only read no novels, (a privation upon which we sincerely congratulate them,) but no books except those supposed to be expressly fitted for their age and sex. Whether the result is, on a comparison with the greater latitude allowed in this and other respects to English girls, unfavorable to the purity of mind and conduct of the latter, we leave it to our readers to determine. Without pretending to judge a question on which far too many hasty and unfair decisions are pronounced on every side, we shall only venture to express our conviction, that in simplicity and purity of heart and life, and in devotion to domestic duties, the women of England—especially those whose understandings have been early schooled and fortified by intercourse with the great and wise—are at least not inferior to any who have ever entered on the perplexing realities of life, from the walls of a convent, or encountered its temptations with the ignorance and inexperience of a babe.

It would seem superfluous to repeat that we mean, and can mean, no such absurdity as that *all* books are fit for children; but we know the unfairness with which opinions are distorted, and we therefore say again, that we take for granted that the books open to their choice would be only such as have the tendency common to all the highest flights and exercises of human genius and human reason—namely, to make us sensible of our position on earth and our kindred with heaven, and to excite in us the earnest purpose and the humble hope so to think, to feel, and to live, as not to belie our high calling. With such aspirations, religion in its purest and sublimest form—the religion of him whose life was the clear and perfect manifestation of the Godlike—naturally allies itself, and is indeed inseparable from them; for when the soul of man has reached its utmost strength and elevation, it can find employment and rest only in the Divine.

From the British and Foreign Review.

1. *Report of Lieut.-Colonel Sir Frederic Smith and Professor Barlow, to the Right Honorable the Earl of Ripon, President of the Board of Trade, on the Atmospheric Railway.* Presented to Parliament by command of Her Majesty. London, 1842.
2. *Rapport, adressé à M. le Ministre des Travaux Publics, sur le nouveau mode de locomotion, dit Système Atmosphérique.* Par. M. EDMOND TEISSERENC. Paris, 1843.
3. *Report on the Railroad constructed from Kingstown to Dalkey, upon the Atmospheric System, and upon the application of this System to Railroads in general.* By M. MALLET. London: John Weale, 1844.
4. *A Treatise on the Adaptation of Atmospheric Pressure to the purposes of Locomotion on Railways.* By J. D' A. SAMUDA. London: John Weale, 1841.
5. *The Atmospheric Railway.* A Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of Ripon, President of the Board of Trade, etc. By JAMES PIM, Jun., M.R.I.A. London, 1841.
6. *Observations on the Report of Lieut.-Colonel Sir Frederic Smith, R.E., and Professor Barlow, on the Atmospheric Railway.* By T. F. BERGIN, M.R.I.A. London, 1842.

AMONGST the inventions which within the last twenty years have rapidly followed one another, in the application of steam power to works of public utility, the most important is the railway. Scarcely fifteen years have elapsed, since the practicability of this means of locomotion was untested even by experiment; and the astonishing rapidity with which, as soon as this point was ascertained, the invention was brought into general use, is itself a criterion of its vast importance.* During the last twelve years, several thousand miles of railway have been laid down in the British empire; and above sixty millions sterling had in 1841 been embarked in railway speculation; independent of this, is the still greater projected extent of its adoption on the Continent. When we consider all the difficulties to be overcome, the immense amount of labor to be encountered, and the enormous capital that has been so easily found and so readily embarked in this gigantic enterprise, we find cause for admiration, not less at the power, skill and industry which have been brought to bear upon this herculean task, than at the apparently limitless resources of our national wealth.

The invention and the successful application of such a power might appear sufficient for one age, were it not that the characteristic of power is to

multiply itself, and that every new discovery proves only the incitement to fresh efforts of inventive genius. We are not content to look back upon what has been achieved, but press continually forward to what we are capable of accomplishing: new means beget fresh wants, and these again are the stimulus to those whose task it is to provide for them.

The history of the discovery which we shall sketch in the present article, presents an interesting chapter in the annals of invention, apart from its vast importance in reference to practical results; and we deem a subject of such universal concernment to be deserving of an historic record. With this view we shall, in the first place, relate briefly the origin and progress of the invention of the Atmospheric Railway, and shall reserve our remarks on its application to the conclusion of this article.

The first idea of employing the power of air in land-carriage* occurred to a gentleman at Manchester, Mr. Taylor, (the inventor of the first power-loom,) in 1805. In conversation with two friends, Mr. Duckworth and Mr. Clegg, the subject was discussed; and, although these gentlemen were all of opinion that the idea was capable of being realized, the means of accomplishing their object was so surrounded with difficulties, that the subject was ultimately dropped without any steps being taken or experiments made. The plan proposed was in principle the same as that which is now in successful operation in Ireland,—namely the application of atmospheric pressure obtained by the exhausting power of the air-pump. Mr. Taylor's scheme only extended to the conveyance of letters and despatches; he suggested that a tube, large enough to contain a parcel, should be laid down from one town to another: at these places a stationary steam-engine should be erected, which should exhaust the tube. The parcels being placed in the tube at one end, and the latter exhausted by an engine at the other, the pressure of the air would carry the contents of the tube along with immense velocity; at each station or town the letters and parcels intended for that district would be taken out, and the rest forwarded to their destination. This ingenious suggestion was never published; we believe that it has remained to the present time wholly unknown: its interest will be seen as we proceed.

In 1810, Mr. George Medhurst, an engineer in London published a pamphlet, in which he proposed "a new method of conveying goods and letters by air;" and in 1812 he published his calculations and remarks on the practicability of the scheme. "These publications," he says, "met with that indifference and contempt which usually attend all attempts to deviate so widely from established customs." His suggestions led however to no attempt to test their correctness; but in 1827 Mr.

* The Liverpool and Manchester line was opened to the public September 15, 1830.

* Mr. Papin originally suggested employing atmospheric pressure against a vacuum, but not for these purposes.

Medhurst printed another pamphlet,* in which the author suggests four applications of the principle of atmospheric pressure to purposes of travelling, which we will describe in his own words. The passages we select contain the whole account of what he purposed to accomplish, the rest of the pamphlet being filled with calculations and details of management, which it is unnecessary to quote.

“In order to apply this principle to the purpose of conveying goods and passengers from place to place, a hollow tube or archway must be constructed the whole distance, of iron, brick, timber, or any material that will confine the air, and of such dimensions as to admit a four-wheeled carriage to run through it, capable of carrying passengers, and of strength and capacity for large and heavy goods. The tube or aerial canal must be made air-tight, and of the same form and dimensions throughout, having a pair of cast-iron or stone wheel tracks securely laid all along the bottom, for the wheels of the carriage to run upon; and the carriage must be nearly of the size and form of the canal, so as to prevent any considerable quantity of air from passing by it. If the air is forced into the mouth of the canal, behind the carriage, by an engine of sufficient power, it will be driven forward by the pressure of the air against it; and if the air is continually driven in, the pressure against the carriage, and consequently its motion, will be continually maintained.”—p. 3.

“When the carriage is to go through the canal, from the engine, the air must be forced into the canal behind it; but when it is to go the contrary way, the same engine is to draw the air out of the canal, and rarely the air before the carriage, that the atmospheric air may press into the canal behind the carriage, and drive it the contrary way.”—p. 15.

The next suggestion of Mr. Medhurst was as follows:—

“It is practicable, upon the same principle, to form a tube so as to leave a continual communication between the inside and the outside of it, without suffering any part of the impelling air to escape; and by this means to impel a carriage along upon an iron road, in the open air, with equal velocity, and in a great degree possessing the same advantages as in passing withinside of the tube, with the additional satisfaction to passengers of being unconfined, and in view of the country. If a round iron tube, 24 inches in diameter, be made, with an opening of 2 inches wide in the circumference, and a flanch 6 or 8 inches deep on each side of the opening, it will leave a channel between the flanches, and an opening into the tube. If such a tube is laid all along upon the ground, with the iron channel immersed in a channel of water, and a piston or box made to fit it loosely, and pass through it upon wheels or rollers, this box, driven through the tube by the air forced into it, may give motion to a carriage without, by a communication through the channel and the water. No air can pass out of the tube while the channel is immersed in water, unless the air is of such density as to force the water out of the channel, and then the air will follow it and escape; but there is an

opening made for a bar of iron to pass from the running box, in the interior of the tube—to which a rod or crank may be brought from the carriage in the open air, and from that receive its motion.”

A third plan was the following:—

“A plan to combine the two modes together, that the goods may be conveyed within the canal, and a communication made from the inside to the outside of it, so that a carriage may be impelled in the open air, to carry passengers, would be an improvement desirable and practicable. It must be effected without the aid of water, that it may rise and fall as the land lies; and it must give a continual impulse to the outside carriage, without suffering the impelling air to escape. For this purpose there must be some machinery which will diminish the simplicity, make it more expensive, and more liable to be disordered, unless executed in the most substantial and perfect manner; but by skill, by experience, and sound workmanship, it may be accomplished in various ways.”

Mr. Medhurst suggested a fourth idea:—

“The same principle and the same form, may be advantageously applied to convey goods and passengers in the open air, upon a common road, at the same rate of a mile in a minute, or sixty miles per hour; and without any obstruction, except, at times, contrary winds, which may retard its progress, and heavy snow, which may obstruct it. If a square iron tube be formed, two feet on each side, four feet in area, with three sides, and one half of the top of cast iron, the other half of the top made of plate iron or copper, to lift up and shut down in a groove in the cast-iron semi-top plate, as before described; and if a strong and light box or frame be made to run upon wheels, within the tube, and an iron arm made to pass out, through the opening made by lifting up the plate, as before described, this arm may give motion to a carriage in the open air, and upon the common road, without any railway, if the pressure within the tube is made strong enough for the purpose.”

This pamphlet is now simply an interesting historical document: the suggestions of its author led at the time to no practical result, because, although he understood the principle, the point upon which its applicability entirely depended was unattained: the difficulty was, to find the means of rendering a tube sufficiently air-tight, and at the same time of allowing a piston, which should connect the motive power *within* the tube with the bodies to be propelled on its outside, to pass freely along an opening in this tube.

Previously however to the appearance of Mr. Medhurst's second tract, a patent was taken out by Mr. Vallance in 1824 for a plan of locomotion by atmospheric pressure. This was merely a modification of Mr. Medhurst's first scheme of exhausting a tunnel large enough to contain a train of carriages: a stationary engine was to be erected at one end of this tunnel, which, it was supposed, would create a sufficient vacuum for the pressure of the air acting on a piston, attached to the first carriage to impel the whole train forward. It is astonishing that a plan, for many reasons so palpably impracticable, engaged the attention of any man of sense, or was made

* It was entitled “A new system of inland conveyance for goods and passengers, capable of being applied and extended throughout the country, and of conveying all kinds of goods, cattle and passengers, etc.”

the subject for a patent. A model of this railway was exhibited at Brighton, but this was the extent of its application.

We shall briefly notice a claim put forward by Mr. Pinkus to be the inventor of a pneumatic railway. He obtained a patent, March 1st, 1834, for a contrivance precisely similar to that which Medhurst had published seven years before, excepting that he proposed to use a rope for the continuous valve, and substituted a cylinder for a square tube, which he describes as follows :—

“A flexible cord lies in the groove at the top of the cylinder, for the purpose of closing the longitudinal aperture; this cord is to be of the same length as the pneumatic railway, and to fit tightly into the groove or channel.”

The failure of this scheme was shown by the fact, that Mr. Pinkus took out a new patent in 1836, in which he says,—

“The method of carrying it into practice consists in a method or in methods of constructing the pneumatic valve and the valvular cord, and in the manner of using the same, one of which methods hereinafter described, I design to substitute for and in lieu of the valve and cord described in the specification of my said former patent.”

It is unnecessary to describe the specification of this contrivance, which proved a second failure; but we must note that it in no way anticipated or resembled the subsequent invention of Mr. Clegg. The difficulty had still to be conquered, and no approach to this had been made, since Mr. Medhurst first suggested the idea of making a continuous communication between the inside of the tube and the carriage without, sufficiently air-tight for the object required. On the 3d of January, 1839, Mr. Clegg took out his patent, which we shall presently describe, and on the 3d of August following Mr. Pinkus took out a third patent, in which he introduces a valve in every respect similar to that of Mr. Clegg, and further proposes to seal it with a composition to be alternately fluid and solid, as described in Mr. Clegg's patent, with the only difference that the composition was to be melted by a galvanic wire instead of a heater. This patent was enrolled eight months after the publication of Mr. Clegg's specification.

All the attempts hitherto made to overcome the difficulty we have mentioned had failed, until the invention of Mr. Clegg effected this, in a manner which, from subsequent experiments, removes any doubt as to the practicability of the atmospheric railway, and opens a new prospect of advantages, the extent of which cannot at present be calculated. The principal feature of this invention consists in “a method of constructing and working valves in combination with machinery,” to be applied to “railways or other purposes, by a line of partially exhausted pipes for the purposes of obtaining a direct tractive force to move weights, either on the railway or otherwise.” The following extract from Mr. Clegg's specification explains this :—

“My improvements consist in a method of con-

structing and working valves in combination with machinery. These valves work on a hinge of leather, or other flexible material, which is practically air-tight, (similar to the valves commonly used in air-pumps,) the extremity or edge of these valves is caused to fall into a trough containing a composition of bees' wax and tallow, or bees' wax and oil, or any substance or composition of substances which is solid at the temperature of the atmosphere, and becomes fluid when heated a few degrees above it. After the valve is closed, and its extremity is laying in the trough, the tallow is heated sufficiently to seal up or cement together the fracture round the edge or edges of the valve, which the previous opening of the valve had caused; and then the heat being removed, the tallow again becomes hard, and forms an air-tight joint or cement between the extremity of the valve and the trough. When it is requisite to open the valve, it is done by lifting it out of the tallow, with or without the application of heat, and the before-named process of sealing it, or rendering it air-tight, is repeated every time it is closed. This combination of valves with machinery, is made in the application of these valves to railways, or other purposes, by a line of partially exhausted pipes for the purposes of obtaining a direct tractive force to move weights, either on the railway or otherwise.”

In a pamphlet printed in 1841, Mr. Pim, the treasurer of the Dublin Railway Company, addressed a letter to the Earl of Ripon, then President of the Board of Trade, on the subject of the atmospheric railway. From this work we shall extract a simple description of the invention.

“On this system of working railways, the moving power is communicated to the trains by means of a continuous pipe or main, of suitable diameter, laid in the middle of the track, and supported by the same cross-sleepers to which the chairs and rails are attached. The internal surface of the pipe being properly prepared by a coating of tallow, a travelling piston made air-tight by leather-packing, is introduced therein, and is connected to the leading carriage of each train by an iron plate or coupler. In this position, if part of the air be withdrawn from that length of pipe in front of the piston by an air-pump, worked from a stationary engine or by other mechanical means, placed at a suitable distance, a certain amount of pressure on the back of the piston (being the locomotive force) will take place, proportioned to the power employed. In practice, and to work economically, it will be sufficient to produce an exhaustion of air in the pipe, equal to causing a pressure from the atmosphere, upon or behind the travelling piston, of 8 lbs. per square inch, which is only about one-half the pressure due to a vacuum. Supposing the main pipe to be of 18 inches diameter, it will receive a piston of 254 superficial inches area, on which, with the above pressure, a tractive force of 2,032 lbs. is consequently obtained; and this is capable of propelling a train weighing 45 tons (or eight to nine loaded carriages,) at the rate of 30 miles an hour, up an acclivity of 1 in 100, or 53 feet per mile. The iron coupler being fixed to the travelling piston within the pipe, and also to the leading carriage of the train, connects them together, moving through an aperture formed in the top, and along the whole length of the pipe; while one set of vertical rollers attached to the piston-rod, at some little distance behind the piston, progressively lift up for the space of a few feet, and

another set of rollers attached to the carriage close down again, a portion of a continuous flexible valve or flap, of peculiar construction, covering the aperture; and it is the very simple, ingenious, and efficient mode of successively opening, and closing down and hermetically sealing this valve, as each train advances and moves on, that constitutes the merit of the invention, and the foundation of the patent; the operation consisting first, in opening the valve to admit the free admission of the external air, to press on the back of the piston, and produce motion; and then in effectually closing down and sealing the valve again, so as to leave the pipe in a fit state to receive the travelling piston of the next train, and ready to be again exhausted of its air. Stationary engines of sufficient power, proportioned to the amount of traffic and speed required, would, in practice, be placed at intervals of about three miles apart, and be arranged to work the railway to that length, alternately on either side of their position, as might be required."—pp. 6-8.

The means of stopping a train and passing from one section of pipe to another, are as follows:—

"When it becomes necessary to stop or retard the carriages, in addition to the use of a common break, a valve in the travelling piston may be opened by the guard or conductor of the train, whereby, the external air being admitted in advance of the piston into the exhausted portion of the pipe, the propelling power is at once destroyed. The separating valves, in the main or pipe between each section or division of the line, being made self-acting, there will be no occasion for stopping, or even for retarding the movement of the train, in passing from one division of the pipe to another, as the air is successively exhausted by the stationary power placed at the proper intervals. The carriages may, therefore, pass continuously, at any required velocity, as if drawn by a locomotive engine; and it is necessary to keep this circumstance in mind, as by any other system of traction by stationary engines than the atmospheric, a stoppage and a change at each engine is unavoidable."—pp. 9, 10.

It is difficult to appreciate fully the simplicity and beauty of this invention, and the facility and regularity with which the tube and valves act, without examining the apparatus or plans of its construction. The exhaustion of the main tube, and the propulsion of the piston and carriages attached, are easily comprehended; but the mode of passing from one section of the pipe to another, above alluded to, requires more attention: this is explained in the description given by M. Teisserenc in his report to the French government, to which we shall presently allude:—

"Quand on sort de la sphère d'action d'une machine pneumatique, pour entrer dans la sphère d'action de l'appareil pneumatique suivant, il est donc convenable que l'air du tube dans lequel on entre soit déjà raréfié; mais alors le tube est fermé à ses deux extrémités. Nouvelle difficulté pour éviter le choc du piston arrivant avec toute sa vitesse acquise contre la soupape de clôture, pour ouvrir cette soupape avec un petit effort, de manière à donner passage au piston, sans donner passage à l'air extérieur, sans arrêter, sans ralentir seulement le convoi. Ici il a fallu encore recourir

à une disposition fort ingénieuse. La soupape de MM. Clegg et Samuda s'ouvre au moment où le piston ferme déjà le tube, et par l'action même du piston; l'effort est presque nul, la rentrée de l'air n'en est pas augmentée. Quant à la sortie du piston d'un tube, elle ne donne lieu non plus, à aucun choc, bien qu'une soupape de clôture se trouve aussi à l'extrémité du tuyau, et voici comment: l'appareil pneumatique placé sur le côté du chemin communique avec le tube de propulsion par un tube aspirateur. Il a suffi de placer ce tuyau aspirateur à quelques mètres en deçà de l'extrémité fermée par la soupape de sortie pour rendre toute rencontre entre le piston et cette soupape impossible. Dès que le piston a dépassé le tube aspirateur, l'air n'étant plus enlevé devant lui se comprime de plus en plus, augmente progressivement de densité jusqu'au moment où la pression intérieure étant supérieure à la pression atmosphérique, la soupape s'ouvre d'elle-même."—*M. Teisserenc's Report*, p. 112.

[On leaving the sphere of action of one pneumatic engine, to enter into the sphere of action of the next pneumatic machinery, it is necessary that the air of the tube into which you enter should be already rarefied: of course the tube is closed at both its extremities. And here is a new difficulty, to avoid the shock of the piston, coming with full momentum against the valve which shuts it up, and to open that valve easily, so as to give a passage to the piston and not to the outer air, and without stopping, or even retarding the train. This required a very ingenious device. The valve of Messrs. Clegg & Samuda opens at the moment that the piston enters the tube, and by the action of the piston itself. The force used is very small, and very little air gets in. When the piston goes out of one of the tubes, there is no more shock, although a valve is at the end of the pipe. It is in this manner. The pneumatic machine placed at the road side, communicates with the propelling tube, by an air tube. And by placing the air tube a short distance before the end of the tube closed by the valve, it is made impossible for the piston to strike against the valve. When the piston has passed the air tube—the air being no longer driven away, is more and more compressed, increasing in density until the pressure from without the valve, being greater than the atmospheric pressure, the valve opens of itself.]

Soon after Mr. Clegg had taken out his patent, he exhibited a model thirty feet long at Paris; and a second model, one hundred and twenty feet long, was erected in 1840, by Messrs. Samuda at their manufactory in Southwark, which excited much attention. In the autumn of the same year a space of ground at Wormholt Scrubs, half a mile long, was placed by the directors of the Thames Junction Railway Company at the disposal of Messrs. Clegg and Samuda, (who coöperated in carrying out the invention,) for the purpose of laying down a line of railway on the atmospheric principle; and in May, 1840, this experimental line was opened. An event so interesting attracted a large concourse of persons to the spot; and by the

issue of the experiment then to be tried, would probably be shown the practicability or failure of the invention: several members of the Cabinet, and a large number of persons of rank and eminent engineers were present. The success which from the first attended these experiments realized the expectations of Messrs. Clegg and Samuda; they were repeated several times each week during a twelvemonth, and continued less frequently a second year. Engineers and persons connected with railway companies came from Paris, Petersburg, Vienna, Berlin and other parts of the continent, as well as from every part of the British dominions, to examine the apparatus and witness its operation. The results of these experiments appeared in a pamphlet in 1840, which was reprinted in an extended form in 1841. We shall refer to the points of chief interest.

The inclination of the line was 1 in 120; the vacuum-pipe half a mile long and 9 inches internal diameter; the exhausting-pump was $37\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter and $22\frac{1}{2}$ inches stroke, worked by a steam-engine of 16 horse power.

"For the purpose of experiment, a series of posts were fixed along the half mile every two chains, and a barometric gauge was attached at each end of the pipe, for the purpose of ascertaining the degree to which the pipe was exhausted. A vacuum equal to a column of mercury eighteen inches high was obtained in about one minute, and both gauges indicated the same extent of vacuum at the same instant."

Following out the registered results obtained during six months, it was found that a main pipe of 18 inches diameter would be sufficiently large for a traffic of 5000 tons a day, viz., 2500 each way, supposing the inclination of the line to average 1 in 100.* But among the most important of the

* The patentees give the following details:—"A main pipe, 18 inches diameter, will contain a piston of 254 inches area: the usual pressure on this piston, produced by exhausting the pipe, should be 8 lbs. per square inch (as this is the most economical degree of vacuum to work at, and a large margin is left for obtaining higher vacuums to draw trains heavier than usual on emergencies)—a tractive force of 2032 pounds is thus obtained, which will draw a train weighing 45 tons, at 30 miles per hour, up an incline rising 1 in 100. Two and a half miles of this pipe will contain 23,324 cubic feet of air, $\frac{1}{4}\frac{3}{8}$ ths of which, or 12,439 cubic feet, must be pumped out to effect a vacuum equal to 8 lbs. per square inch; the air-pump for this purpose should be 5 feet 7 inches diameter, or 24.7 feet area, and its piston should move through 220 feet per minute, thus discharging at the rate of $24.7 \times 220 = 5434$ cubic feet per minute at first, and at the rate of 2536 cubic feet per minute when the vacuum has advanced to 16 inches mercury, or 8 lbs. per square inch, the mean quantity discharged being thus 3935 feet per minute: therefore $\frac{12439}{3935} = 3.1$ minutes, the time required to exhaust the pipe; and as the area of the pump piston is 14 times as great as that in the pipe, so the velocity of the latter will be 14 times as great as that of the former, or 220 feet per minute $\times 14 = 3080$ feet per minute, or 35 miles per hour. But in consequence of the imperfect action of an air-pump, slight leakages, etc., this velocity will be reduced to 30 miles per hour, and the time requisite to make the vacuum increased to 4 minutes: the train will thus move over the 2.5 miles section in 5 minutes, and it can be prepared for the next train in 4 minutes more,—together 9 minutes; 15 minutes is there-

facts deduced from these experiments are the following, which refer to the effects of wear and tear on the apparatus:—

* * * "The workings of the system are equally perfect during all seasons,—through the height of summer and in the severest winter that we have known for many years: in no single instance during the whole time has any derangement of the machinery taken place, to prevent, or even to delay for one minute, the starting of the trains. The main pipe and valve have considerably improved by working; the composition for sealing the valve has become so much more firmly bedded in its place, that while in June last we were only able to obtain a vacuum equal to a column of mercury 19 to 20 inches high, we now obtain from 22 to 24 inches, and occasionally 25. The speed, originally from 20 to 30 miles per hour, now ranges from 30 to 45. The whole attendance the valve and main received during this period was that of a single laborer for about one hour every week: the composition now in the valve-groove has never been changed; and 56 lbs. weight only has been added to supply the waste; the cost of this composition, which consists of wax and tallow, is 1s. per lb."—p. 11.

The success of these experiments, and the general attention which was drawn to the subject, forced it upon the notice of the government. Mr. Pim, who took a warm interest in the promotion of so important an enterprise, printed a detailed description of the atmospheric railway, the great public advantages which its adoption held out, and urged the subject strongly on the attention of the Board of Trade. In consequence of this appeal, Sir Frederick Smith and Professor Barlow were appointed to examine the experimental works at Wormholt Scrubs, and to furnish a report upon the applicability of the system. This document, addressed to the Earl of Ripon, was presented to Parliament, and is dated February 15, 1842. Its contents consist chiefly of calculations on the details of working, too purely scientific for our examination here. We cannot, however, but notice the partiality of the general remarks, the evident desire to suggest every doubt and to minimize every advantage of the atmospheric system. Notwithstanding this bias, however, the admissions forced upon its authors are decisive. The chief points on which questions naturally present themselves, and to which we shall first confine our attention, are the following: we quote them from the Parliamentary Report:—

"It is no longer a question whether trains of carriages may be worked by means of atmospheric pressure; the points now to be decided are:—

"1. Whether this principle admit of its being advantageously applied to greater distances than half a mile, which is the length of the present experimental line" [at Wormholt Scrubs.]

fore ample time to allow between each train, and supposing the working day to consist of 14 hours, 56 trains can be started in each direction, or 2520 tons, making a total of 5000 tons per day. The fixed engine to perform this duty will be 110 horses' power, equivalent to 22 horses' power per mile in each direction."

"2. The probable expense of constructing a railway on this principle, and of supplying the locomotive power.

"3. The relative economy in working such a line, as compared with a railway worked by locomotive engines.

"4. The degree of safety which the atmospheric system affords, as compared with other locomotive means."

The first of these points appears to be decided, by the successful results obtained on the railway from Kingstown to Dalkey, extending nearly two miles, which has been recently completed: these are still more satisfactory than the former experiments on a line of half a mile: but we shall have occasion to refer to them hereafter. We shall here quote the observations of Mr. Samuda on this point:—

"In answer to the first objection we would say, in every case where a train has been started, the pipe has first been exhausted to eighteen inches of mercury or upwards. * * * * * From the barometric gauges fixed at both ends of the pipe, the vacuum is ascertained to be formed to an equal extent throughout the whole length without any appreciable difference of time. The pipe laid down is nine inches diameter and half a mile long, and a pressure equal to a column of mercury eighteen inches high is obtained in one minute by an air-pump thirty-seven and a half inches diameter, moving through one hundred and sixty-five feet per minute. Now it is obvious that, if the transverse section of the pipe be increased to any extent, and the area of the air-pump *proportionately* increased, the result will remain unaltered,—i. e., half a mile of pipe will be exhausted in one minute; and supposing the air-pump has to exhaust three miles, it will perform the operation in six minutes: it is also obvious that if the area of the air-pump be increased in a greater proportion than that of the pipe, the exhaustion will be performed more rapidly, or *vice versa*. These results are matters of absolute certainty, as convincingly clear as that the power of a steam-engine must be regulated by the area of the piston on which the steam acts. No person of scientific attainments will for one moment doubt that, if a steam-engine were made with a cylinder twice the area of the *largest* cylinder ever set to work, the power obtained would be in proportion to the increased area. And so with the air-pumps before alluded to; the excess of work is immediately arrived at, that an air-pump six feet three inches diameter will perform over another of three feet one and a half inch diameter, the speed of the pistons being the same in both instances. So plain and self-evident is this result, that we believe the most skeptical will admit it to be correct; and this being granted, the applicability of the system to a line of any length must follow; for whatever the length of railroad be,—whether three, or thirty, or three hundred miles,—no different effects have to be produced. The working a road thirty miles long would be the same thing as working ten roads each three miles long. Every three miles an engine and air-pump is fixed, which exhausts its own portion of pipe before the train arrives; thus, as the train advances, it receives power from each succeeding engine in turn (and without any stop-

page, unless required, until it arrives at its final destination,) and the air-pumps continuing to work, after the train has passed, on the section they act upon, re-exhaust it in readiness for the next.

2. With respect to the cost of construction, we now possess satisfactory data upon which to form a calculation. In the first place, on the atmospheric system one line of rails is proved to be sufficient, and half the expense of rails is thus at once saved. But in addition to this, the weight of the rail may be reduced very considerably, in consequence of the weight of the locomotive engine (from fifteen to twenty tons) being got rid of.

M. Mallet, in his recent Report to the French Government, (to which we shall refer hereafter,) makes another valuable suggestion, which will probably lead to a further saving:—"Could we not besides (as is done on the road from Kingstown to Dalkey, where the trains run more than five hundred metres by momentum, the piston out of the pipe) have long interruptions of the main pipes, at the ends of which the trains arriving at new mains should regain their lost speed. Great economy would follow such an arrangement. Of the different combinations which might thus be formed, much yet remains to be said."—p. 44.

Another considerable saving is effected in the expense of forming the road. Those who have studied the cost of constructing railways, know well how large an item this forms. A slight inclination in the course renders a succession of embankments, cuttings, viaducts, &c., necessary, which have not only to be made in the first instance, but to be maintained and repaired. The cost of this is too obvious, to any one who has travelled on our present lines of railway, to need indication.

M. Mallet, in speaking of the width of way required on the present system, says:—

"This width, more than quadruple that of the road, is rendered necessary by—First, the foundation of the slopes required by the cuttings and embankments. Secondly, the spoil banks. Thirdly, the side roads. Fourthly, the drains or ditches; and fifthly and lastly, the sidings for stations on the line. Of these five causes the principal is the foundations for the slopes, which are often very considerable. The necessity of great radii of curvature, and especially that of small inclinations, leads inevitably to this. With the atmospheric system, the earthworks, and consequently the extent of the slopes, will be much less considerable. To estimate the cost of compensation on this system at five ninths of that on the ordinary railroads would be to overrate this part of the expense."—p. 40.

And again:—

"Passing now to works of art, I shall remark that a great number among them, as bridges, under which the railroad passes, will be considerably reduced in their dimensions. Instead of a height of 5^m. 50 under the crown, these bridges will need to have no more than 3^m. 50 at most,

since it will not be necessary to leave passage for the chimneys of the locomotives. The quantity of embankment at the approaches to these bridges will be proportionally less.”—p. 41.

The fact has never been questioned, that the atmospheric railway admits of much steeper gradients; and, without entering on the wide field of calculations of economy and public advantage which this simple fact opens, we shall limit our remarks to one point of view, and leave our readers to follow out the deducible reasonings. A locomotive engine weighing seventeen tons will only draw a load of about thirty tons up an inclined plane of one in one hundred at the rate of twenty miles an hour. If required to draw any additional weight, at this small speed, another engine must be attached,—that is, the cost of working must be *doubled*. This is alluded to by M. Teisserenc :—

“Ne pouvant diviser les trains, ni créer à volonté des trains supplémentaires, aussitôt qu’un convoi est trop chargé, il faut atteler deux locomotives, c’est-à-dire doubler les frais de transport. Les accidents sur les trains menés à très-grande vitesse ont d’autant plus de gravité que le nombre des voitures attelées est plus considérable. Non seulement ils frappent un plus grand nombre de personnes, mais la masse en mouvement étant plus grande, les chocs, en cas d’arrêt brusque, sont plus difficiles à amortir, plus désastreux dans leurs conséquences.”—p. 107.

[There being no way of dividing the trains, nor of bringing forward supplementary trains at pleasure, as soon as a train is found to be too heavy, it becomes necessary to attach a second locomotive, which doubles the expense of transportation. When an accident happens to a train going very fast, the mischief is increased in proportion to the number of carriages in it. Not only by the increased number of passengers, but the mass in motion being larger, it is more difficult to deaden the shock, in case of a sudden stoppage, and the consequences are the more disastrous.]

We now turn to the atmospheric principle. The stationary engine of one hundred horsepower, now at work on the Dalkey railway, draws seventy-two tons at twenty miles an hour, along a line of one and three quarter miles upon a gradient of one in one hundred. The parliamentary reporters admit that, whilst “a great part of the power of the heavy locomotive engine is expended in overcoming its own gravity and resistance, it is equally true that, on the atmospheric principle, the whole additional force is exerted on the load itself.” This advantage of the atmospheric principle consequently admits the power of working lines economically on a large range of gradients from which locomotive power is necessarily excluded; the question of limit is, in fact, one not of power but of economical calculation. “The atmospheric system,” says M. Mallet, “is, so to speak, master of the acclivities, and affords opportunities of making calculations which the present system, with its stringent conditions, does not admit of.” To overcome the resistance of a load up a steep hill, the power of the engine must be

increased; and it is only a question, in each particular instance, whether this will be more expensive than tunnelling or embanking. The parliamentary reporters remark, that “to work steep inclines by means of larger tubes would involve the necessity of stopping the train at the foot of such planes, and of again overcoming the inertia of the load; in both instances causing a loss of time.” This objection is answered by Mr. Bergin as follows :—

“Assume for a moment, which however I altogether deny, that it was necessary to vary the size of the main on every ascent, and to stop the train at the foot thereof, for the purpose of changing the piston, I should say the cases are very few indeed in which the engineer, when laying out a line of railway, could not so arrange his plans that these stopping places should be the most desirable for stations, and thus render the accommodation afforded to the public perfectly compatible with the efficient and economical working of the line. But I do not agree in supposing it necessary to change the dimensions of the main on every steep incline; * * * the less the exhaustion in the main, the greater the quantity of air extracted at each stroke of the pump in proportion to the power expended; or, in other words, the less the exhaustion (within proper limits) the diameter of the main being proportionately increased, the greater the economy of the system; and in this assertion I am fully borne out by the reporters’ investigation. Further, this reduction of vacuum does not materially affect the velocity of travelling, which is essentially dependent on the *discharging power* of the air-pump. Such being the fact, an engineer, when looking out a line of railway, and starting with the knowledge that he is not restricted to levels or even to moderate gradients, would find few districts in which he would not be able to form the railway almost on the very surface of the country; for he would be at liberty to avail himself of almost any ascent; the only consequence of his doing so being an increased expenditure of power, precisely in the ratio of the increased resistance.”

There are many other incidental advantages, of an importance scarcely yet appreciable, which are obtained by the simple command of steeper gradients. It will be seen that this opens at once a much wider and more free choice to the engineer in the course of his line, and the expenses of compensation for the value of property may frequently be affected and considerably reduced or avoided.

Independent, however, of mere economical considerations, we remark the incalculable advantage of effecting the *possibility of railroads* in countries where locomotive power must ever remain inapplicable. Mountains may be bored, valleys may be bridged with viaducts, or filled up with embankments, but the power to effect this does not depend merely upon skill and the command of capital; it is restricted within the limits of prudent economy, of that foresight in man which regulates expenditure by anticipated profit—which plants the grain, that it may increase and multiply. These gigantic works will only be undertaken

where the existing or anticipated traffic justifies the speculation; and we may hence estimate, in some degree, the value of an invention which offers so wide an extension of these advantages of communication, whilst it holds out increased inducements of profit to enterprising capitalists to promote the public benefit.

3. We now proceed to the relative expenses of working, on which point the parliamentary reporters make the following remarks:—

“This is a question to which no general answer can be given, because it depends entirely on the daily amount of traffic. We have no doubt that a stationary engine properly proportioned, according to the rules we have indicated for a pipe three miles long, would be able to work trains on a line every quarter of an hour, or every half hour, each way, during the day, (say of twelve hours,) amounting to one hundred and forty-four miles. Now to work this distance by a locomotive engine, at the moderate estimate of 1s. 4d. per mile, would amount to 9l. 18s., say 10l. per day; whereas the stationary engine power would not cost one half that sum, and consequently a saving in working expenses would arise of 1800l. or 2000l. per annum. But if only half this duty were required, the expenses of the two ways of working would be much nearer equal; and again, if only half the latter duty were to be performed, that is of trains starting only every two hours each way, the advantages would be on the side of the locomotive engine. The fact is, that in one case the expenses per diem will be nearly the same, whether working at intervals of an hour or at every quarter hour; whereas in the other the charge is nearly proportional to the work actually performed.”—*Report*, p. 5.

This we assume to be correct; at the same time it will be borne in mind that, by ascertained facts, the atmospheric railway is now shown to work as easily at the rate of fifty to sixty miles an hour, upon an ordinary line, as at twenty miles,—with the remarkable advantage, that increase of speed does not increase the cost. In some respects, the tendency of increase of speed is even to lessen cost; for instance, it has been shown that the leakage is diminished in proportion to speed, and a saving is thus effected. Assuming therefore, on the other hand, that the traffic on a line renders it desirable to start trains every quarter instead of every half hour, it is easily accomplished. The statement of the parliamentary reporters shows how the economy on the atmospheric system would increase in such cases. And here we must remark a singular advantage of employing stationary engines, alluded to by M. Teisserenc.* The cost of a locomotive engine, in action, is nearly the same whatever load it draws; and the cost of repairs is proportionably smaller upon an engine of large size and power; such a motive power can therefore be only profitably worked with large trains, and this very fact tends to limit considerably the number of daily trains, and consequently the ad-

vantages of railway travelling.* A necessary regard to public security leads to the same conclusion. The rapid succession of trains upon a line is a constant source of danger, and delays are therefore unavoidable. Upon an atmospheric railway, on the contrary, the greater the number of trains started in a day, (without reference to their load,) the more economical is the system of working. By the registered experiments on the Dalkey railway, a train with a load of seventy-two tons, takes five minutes and thirty-three seconds to perform the journey of a mile and three quarters. Now, as upon this system no two trains can possibly move at once on the same section of pipe, no delay is required in starting the trains, to avoid danger from their overtaking one another. As soon therefore as one train has passed off a section, the tube is ready to be exhausted again (which is effected in about three to five minutes,) and to receive the next train immediately. Upon these facts it is easy to form any calculations; motives of economy would lead to the starting of as *many*, instead of as *few* trains as possible; and whilst no accident could by any chance occur from a rapid succession of trains, it is needless to remark that the public would be incalculably benefited.

An important point will be here observed,—that a considerable saving in the cost of working is effected by the very means which the public advantage requires—namely, by despatching trains as speedily as possible. Their weight is consequently diminished, and the piston, having less to draw, may be proportionably smaller in diameter. This reduces the cost of the pipe (which is the chief item in the first outlay of construction) in nearly the same proportion as the speed is increased, and as the rapid succession of trains is effected. In short, the economy of working and the advantage to the public are here identical.

Upon this subject we will only observe, that a consideration next in importance to that of security, is that of *velocity*—the power obtained by so much greater speed in carriage—and the manifold results which are connected, directly and indirectly, with this advantage. To these results we can only draw the reader's attention in a general way; the value to the government of a double rate of speed (independently of a reduced rate of carriage) is incalculable, for the transmission of despatches, troops, etc., but above all for the service of the Post-Office. We may imagine, but cannot estimate, the vast effect on the revenue and business of the Post-Office, which must accrue from the following advantages:—as quick a succession of trains as might be desired,—a speed of transmission more than double the present,—a large reduction of the expenses of carriage,—besides opening the possibility of employing railways in lines where they are now wholly impracticable. Without considering the really most important

* See his Report to the French Government, p. 107.

* Ibid. p. 107.

gain to the nation—of the new facilities of correspondence—we limit our remark to the effects on the Post-Office revenue.

Another source of economy in working on the atmospheric system is, that the power expended may be exactly regulated according to the power required. M. Mallet remarks on this point:—

“Whatever be the load of the trains, the Rouen Railway Company pay 1*l.* 10 per kilomètre for locomotive power; whilst on the atmospheric system the action of the engines might be diminished, and the power proportioned to the resistance by making no more rarefaction than necessary. It would be possible, for instance, to use on ordinary occasions an exhaustion of twelve or thirteen inches;—this could easily be obtained in two minutes. Thus, at each trip, three minutes’ work of the engines would be saved.”—p. 52.

The Parliamentary Report states, that “in the cost of the maintenance of way, there would be a difference in favor of the atmospheric principle.”

An objection has been raised to the atmospheric system, on the ground of the expense of the stationary steam-engines and establishments, and the liability to accident. This is replied to by Mr. Samuda as follows:—

“The objection as to the complexity and outlay attendant on a number of fixed engines, may perhaps be better answered by taking a review of the number and expense of these engines and the duty they are required to perform. On a line 30 miles long, supposing the average distance between the engines to be 3 miles, there would be 10 engines and air-pumps with their engine-houses; and if the railroad were appointed for transporting 5000 tons per day over the whole distance, (considerably more than double the amount carried daily on any railroad in England,) the expense of one of these stationary engine establishments would cost complete £4200, which, multiplied by 10, will give £42,000—total cost on the whole line. But it is a fact which probably must have escaped the notice of those urging this expense as a drawback to the atmospheric system, if they were ever acquainted with it, that to perform a traffic of only 1700 tons per day, upwards of one locomotive engine per mile is necessary; and as each locomotive costs £1500, the total capital required for locomotive power on a railroad 30 miles in length would be £45,000; in first cost, therefore, there would be a saving of £3000 in favor of the stationary power; but this is far from being the most important saving. Every mill-owner in Lancashire and Yorkshire, and any person connected with mining operations, will readily admit that this outlay being once incurred for a steam-engine to drive his machinery or drain his mine, and his engine being once fixed on *terra firma*, its deterioration, uncertainty of action, or annual expense of maintenance, is not a source of annoyance or anxiety to him. Five per cent. per annum on the cost will more than cover all repairs necessary to be performed to it, and all oil, hemp, and tallow used in working it. It is the exception, and not the rule, if a stationary engine once fixed, meet with a derangement to render a stoppage necessary.

The annual expenses will be for repairs
at 5 per cent. on £42,000, £2100

For coal for these engines, (when transporting 2000 tons per day,) 6420 tons per year, at 20 <i>s.</i> per ton,	6420
Wages to engine-men and stokers,	1800
	£10,320

“The Liverpool and Manchester Railway is 30 miles long, and is the only railway that transports as much as 1700 tons per day over its whole distance; and the annual expense of its locomotive department, including coke, is about £50,000 a year. Need we make any further comment, when the annual expense of power for the atmospheric system is £10,320, and for performing the same traffic on the locomotive system upwards of £50,000 is found necessary? Great as the pecuniary advantages have been shown to be, we must not forget to correct the third objection; viz., the erroneous opinion that the system is faulty because an accident occurring at one of these stations would interrupt the traffic on the whole line. *Primâ facie*, this argument is correct, but we have already shown how small the chance of accident is to a stationary steam-engine * * *. To make assurance doubly sure, a pair of engines and a pair of air-pumps, each of half the requisite power, may be fixed at each station: should anything cause one engine and pump to stop, the traffic would not be interrupted; the only delay would be the retardation of the train while passing over that section of pipe where only half the power was in action; and, until the cause of the stoppage were removed, the trains would be some five or six minutes more than usual performing the journey.”—p. 17.

We must notice one more objection of a serious nature, connected with the employment of a single line of way,—viz., that an accident occurring at one of the stations, or anywhere along the pipe, may interrupt the traffic on the whole line. Upon this point Mr. Samuda remarks:—

“The next objection we have to meet is the interruption to the traffic from some derangement in the pipe. This comprehends, 1*st*, an accident to the pipe itself; and, 2*d*, from the composition not being effectually sealed.—An accident to the pipe can only occur from breakage, and, unless designedly perpetrated, could never happen at all. But for the sake of argument, we will suppose a pipe has been broken—no matter how; the time of removing it and replacing it with another would be considerably less than the time now necessary to clear off the fragments of a broken engine and train after a collision; and supposing a length of valve to require replacing, it could be done in less time than replacing a rail when torn up by an engine running off the line. If, instead of one, there were one hundred places along the pipe where the heater had imperfectly performed its functions, the admission of atmospheric air through the composition in these places would only reduce the column of mercury a few inches: no stoppage or interruption of the traffic could possibly occur from this cause; and by comparing the quantity of air pumped out at each stroke of the pump, with the quantity that will leak in at each imperfectly sealed spot, any such erroneous idea will be removed. Perhaps on this head an appeal to experience will be more satisfactory than any argument, however strong. In the whole of our workings, the column of mercury has never varied in height more than two inches on the same day;

and as it requires eight times the number of minutes to destroy the vacuum in the pipe, when the engine is at rest, than it takes to raise it when in action, it follows that one eighth only of the power (two horses) is all that is employed to overcome leakage. Perhaps the necessity of stopping the traffic of a line in the event of an accident, until the damage is replaced or the obstacle cleared away, should be regarded upon all railways as a peculiar advantage: by this necessity all chance of 'running into' is avoided; and where stationary power is employed the difficulties of communication which a locomotive line has to contend with are overcome. By means of an electric telegraph, every engine-station along 100 miles of road may be communicated with in half a minute, and thus the traffic may be suspended and resumed at pleasure."—p. 17.

M. Mallet has examined this objection in the following passage:—

"It has been said, should any accident occur on your single way, the traffic is all stopped; whereas with two lines of a locomotive road, if anything happens to one you have the other remaining. I will not dispute the validity of this objection, neither will I destroy it; but I can greatly lessen it in stating that very many of the accidents which happen on the locomotive lines, become an impossibility upon the atmospheric. No collision, no probable running off the rails: from whence then will accidents arise? From evil-disposed persons injuring the road? In that case, the lines of locomotives are as open to their attacks as the atmospheric, and they might as well injure two lines as one. I see not any chance of stoppage, except from the breaking of an axle or a wheel, and these are mishaps which occur but seldom; besides which, when they do, the road could speedily be cleared of one carriage rendered unfit for service. I will not for a moment deny that there may be occasions of interruption of the transits; so there are also upon the locomotive lines, in spite of their two lines of way."

4. In the last place we have to consider the safety afforded by the atmospheric system, as compared with other locomotive means. This is a subject of such paramount importance, that, were any one system proved to afford increased security, purchased even by increased cost of construction and working, a proper regard to public safety of life and limb ought to preponderate over pecuniary motives. When, however, on the contrary, an invention offers the means of reducing the expenses of travelling, and at the same time of obviating the possibility of accident, such a benefit to mankind ought at least to be met with every attention and encouragement. If any one feature characterizes the principle of the atmospheric railway, it is the very element of safety which lies in its construction and in the mode of its working. On this point we shall first quote the opinion of M. Teisserenc:—

"*Au point de vue de la Sécurité.*—Il est facile de montrer que le système atmosphérique remédie à toutes les causes principales d'accident sur les chemins-de-fer en usage aujourd'hui. Quelles sont, en effet, ces causes: les collisions entre les trains, la sortie de la voie, la rupture des essieux

des locomotives, les éboulements dans les grandes tranchées, les incendies. Avec l'appareil atmosphérique, pas de collisions, pas d'incendies, pas de rupture d'essieu; la voie modelée sur le niveau naturel du sol ne nécessite pas de grands mouvements de terre; le train tenu par un point fixé ne peut guère quitter les rails."—p. 117.

[As to safety, it is easy to show that the atmospheric system removes the causes of most of the accidents which take place on our present railroads. These are: the collision of trains; running off the rail, breaking of the axles of the locomotives; slides in deep cuts; and fire. With the atmospheric machinery there can be no collisions, no fires, no breaking of the axle. The road being laid upon the natural surface of the soil, renders great alterations of level unnecessary; and the train being held by a fixed point can hardly ever run off the rails.]

Mr. Samuda remarks upon this subject as follows:—

"Besides these advantages, this system possesses others of still more importance to the public. *No collision between trains can take place*; for as the power cannot be applied to more than one piston at a time in the same section of pipe, the trains must ever be the length of a section apart from each other; and if from any cause a train should be stopped in the middle of a section, the train which follows it will be obliged to stop also at the entrance of the pipe, as there will be no power to propel it until the first train is out. It is also impossible for two trains to run in opposite directions on the same line, as the power is only applied at one end of each section. A train cannot get off the rail, as the leading carriage is firmly attached to the piston, which travels in the pipe between the rails; and the luggage and carriages cannot be burnt, as no engines travel with the trains."

The opinion given by M. Mallet fully confirms this statement. "Firstly," he says, "this system, from not employing locomotives, is exempt from all the dangers to which accidents to them expose us. * * * In the second place, the risk of collision entirely vanishes, and perfect security may be enjoyed on that head, two trains never being able to run in the same pipe at once." Again he says:—

"Upon an atmospheric railroad there is no possibility of running off the rails; or at least, if one carriage gets off the rails no accident can result from it. First, the leading carriage, firmly and closely attached to a pipe, which may well be regarded as immovable, from its own weight and the strength with which it is fastened down, cannot run off the rail. Those which follow it, and are linked to each other, would have even more difficulty in getting off the rails. But on a railroad, whilst the guiding carriage maintains its way, it is of little consequence if one of those behind misses the rail; its wheels may plough up the soil beside the track, but as it cannot get away no danger is to be apprehended, and the worst that can happen will be a check in the speed. This is an important result for the construction of roads upon the atmospheric system. Curves also, which on the locomotive system may not be made less than 800^m radius, may by this system be taken much sharper. I do not think that it is wise to reduce

them as far as those of the road of Kingstown to Dalkey; but I look upon radii of 300^m to 400^m as quite possible."—p. 28.

This point is of such singular importance to the public, that we deem it desirable to compare the opinions of all those engineers who have examined and reported upon the merits of the system, as it is essential that the fullest satisfaction should be afforded. We shall further quote a passage from Mr. Bergin's pamphlet, in which he notices a remark made in the Parliamentary Report—that it is a great element of safety for the source of power to be present with the train.

"There remains but one other matter to which I think it necessary to advert; but that one is, in my judgment, of such paramount importance, that, more than any other, it characterizes the atmospheric system; I mean the safety of the passengers; not merely relatively to other modes of transit, but the highest attainable degree of absolute safety. * * * Now what the locomotive system is in point of safety to the older modes of travelling, I believe the atmospheric to be to the locomotive: in a word, as free from hazard as it is possible for any human contrivance to be. What elements of danger are there?—collision is impossible, all recognized causes of fracture of parts are almost altogether absent. * * * In speaking on this subject, the reporters say, 'On railways, it is a great element of safety that the source of power is present with the train, and may be almost instantly turned off if any necessity shows itself for the stopping.'—The presence of the engine, it is too well known, has *not* always proved a source of safety, as no inconsiderable portion of the very worst of railway casualties have been *solely occasioned by it*. The latter part of the sentence is generally true; but in this respect there is no difference between the locomotive and the atmospheric systems; or if there be, it is in my opinion in favor of the latter, inasmuch as the means of turning off the power are still more certain; the regulator or steam-cock of a locomotive engine may stick fast, so that the engine-man cannot move it; this I have more than once known to be the case. But there are abundance of contrivances in daily use, any one of which is adequate for uniting the travelling piston to the train, and in which no difficulty of separation, nor apprehension of any derangement, can possibly exist. Besides, even were this not the case, this separation or casting off is not the only means at the command of the conductor; in common with the locomotive-train he has the break, and in addition he has the power of instantly opening a communication between the exhausted main and the atmosphere; this latter of course is not so immediate in its action as shutting off the steam in a locomotive, but combined with the break, which from the much less weight and momentum of the atmospheric train, I know by frequent trials, (even at full speed, and with the full motive pressure in operation,) to be much more effective than with a locomotive engine, I believe it practicable to bring to rest a train moved by atmospheric pressure, *in as short a space as is consistent with the materials of the carriage holding together*."

Thus, so far from its being a cause of insecurity for the source of power to be distant from the train, the very reverse is the case. "La locomotive

porte avec elle," observes M. Teisserenc, "un élément terrible de destruction, le feu, dont le catastrophe du 8 Mai, les accidents arrivés sur le chemin de Liège, sur celui de Tsarkoé-Selo à St. Petersbourg, ne font que trop ressortir le danger." Similar casualties of daily occurrence, attended with more or less mischief, might be quoted. The objection stated in the above extract has been carefully examined by M. Mallet, who says in conclusion:—"I must add, that it is not true to assert that there is no communication between the engine-man and the train. The barometer, which he has continually before his eyes, ever indicates the power he is exerting over the piston, and the increased or diminished velocity of the train is perfectly known to him by the rising and falling of the mercury. The barometer, also, is an instrument which it requires very little instruction to understand and make use of."

But independently of the removal of this source of danger, it is manifest that, in the very point in which the parliamentary reporters ascribe exclusive safety to the locomotive system, the atmospheric has the advantage of not only possessing *all* the means of safety attached to a locomotive engine, unattended by any of its dangers, but others in addition. We may observe that the weight of the engine being dispensed with, the momentum of a train is reduced in proportion. The necessary weight in a train to convey two hundred passengers upon the locomotive system amounts to seventy-seven tons; whilst on the atmospheric system it is only thirty-three tons. So that the application of the break on the latter system will stop a train in half the time that it would with locomotive engines. Mr. Bergin has alluded to these in the above extract, but we may notice still another.

When the power is turned off in a locomotive engine, the momentum is checked by the break, and by reversing the action of the engines. Upon the atmospheric system, the required object is, as it were, also provided for in a beautiful manner by the natural action of the principle employed. The conductor no sooner opens the communication between the exhausted main and the atmosphere, (which is accomplished by the simplest means,) than the very power which had before served to impel the train, now, when it is required to act contrariwise, tends to retard it. As soon as the air is admitted *before* the piston, not only is the motive power stopped, but the very momentum of the train accelerates its own stoppage, by compressing the air before the piston; so that its density acts as a check *powerful in proportion to its speed*, and diminishes only as the train stops.

The action of this same principle meets another question. It has been asked whether, supposing any leakage or accident should happen in the tube before the piston, in ascending a steep incline, the train would not run backwards by its own force of gravity? Supposing any such accident to happen, the same principle of nature which we have noticed

would act to prevent this result: the momentum is proportioned to the inclination, and the greater the speed from this cause, the greater would be the compression of the air—in fact the power to resist it. This beautiful operation of a principle of nature, so simple and self-adjusting, will be intelligible to every one.

We have thus noticed the chief points alluded to in the Parliamentary Report. A reply to many of the statements contained in it was published in the pamphlet by Mr. Bergin, of Dublin, to which we have alluded: in this he examines at great length the result of the experiments instituted by the parliamentary reporters, and their theoretical investigations, especially with respect to the estimated expenditure of engine-power required to maintain the exhaustion in the working main—the exhausting power of the air-pump, and the proportionate amount of leakage in the long valve and the piston in the main tube. Mr. Bergin examines, in a second class of observations, the remarks founded upon these calculations, which he considers as mere matters of opinion, and to which our attention has been more immediately directed.

We shall proceed to notice the comparison of the merits of the two systems given by the patentees:

“We will first notice the principal defects in railways worked by locomotive power. These are, the expenses consequent upon their formation and working, in addition to the impossibility of obtaining a speed beyond 25 miles an hour, without incurring a more than proportionate additional expense. For an engine that would draw 61·29 tons on a level at the rate of 25 miles an hour, would,—if required to travel 30 miles an hour, only be able to draw 29·66 tons,—or, for the additional 5 miles in speed, a loss of more than one half in power. These evils arise from the following causes: first, from the necessity of making the roads comparatively level, owing to the nature of the power employed. The whole power of the locomotive engine is not available to impel the train, because it has to drag itself and tender. Thus a great portion of its power is consumed even on a level; but that loss of power is greatly augmented when contending with the slightest ascent.”—*Samuda*, p. 21.

Here we must observe, that the velocity of travelling offers a remarkable contrast between the locomotive and atmospheric systems of railway. On an atmospheric line, increase of speed does not increase the cost of transit: the amount of discharging power expended during the transit of a given load, over a given distance, is the same, whatever the speed; and at the same time a saving in the loss from leakage is effected also in proportion to speed. On a line worked by locomotive engines it has been clearly proved that an increase in the velocity of the train from 25 to 30 miles per hour, is attended with a loss of more than half the effective power of the engine. This disadvantage is also attended by another serious one when an engine has to draw a train up an inclined plane,—a difficulty which augments in an increasing ratio

to the inclination; an engine that would draw 269·87 tons at 10 miles an hour, on a level of one in 1000, can only draw 84·07 at the same speed on a gradient of one in 100. Thus, as Mr. Pim well observes, “the power is lost or absorbed in the inverse ratio in which it requires to be augmented, precisely at the moment when it is most important to obtain an increase.”

The following table, taken from Mr. Wood’s “Practical Treatise on Railroads,”* shows the gross load which a locomotive engine, capable of evaporating sixty cubic feet of water per hour, will drag, exclusive of the tender, at the under-mentioned rates of speed, on different inclinations of planes. This will enable the reader to estimate the advantage which the atmospheric railway possesses:—

Inclina- tion of plane.	10 miles an hour	12½ miles an hour	15 miles an hour	17½ miles an hour	20 miles an hour	22½ miles an hour	25 miles an hour	27½ miles an hour	30 miles an hour
Level.	346	251	187	142	108	82	61	44	30
1 in 4480	325·72	238·09	176·35	133·66	101·65	76·75	56·83	40·54	26·95
1 in 2240	307·65	222·67	166·06	125·62	95·30	71·71	52·84	37·40	24·54
1 in 1120	276·47	199·65	148·34	111·85	84·41	63·07	45·99	32·03	20·39
1 in 1000	269·87	194·76	144·70	108·93	82·11	61·24	44·54	30·89	19·51
1 in 900	264·59	190·85	141·70	106·58	80·25	59·77	43·38	29·98	18·80
1 in 800	255·56	184·17	136·59	102·5	77·09	57·25	41·40	28·42	17·60
1 in 700	246·17	177·22	131·27	98·43	73·81	54·65	39·33	26·79	16·35
1 in 600	234·68	169·72	124·75	93·34	69·78	51·46	36·80	24·81	14·82
1 in 500	220·02	157·87	116·45	86·85	64·65	47·38	33·53	22·28	12·66
1 in 400	201·04	143·82	105·69	78·44	58·01	42·11	29·40	19·19	10·33
1 in 300	175·39	124·85	91·16	67·09	49·03	34·99	23·76	14·57	6·91
1 in 200	138·48	97·64	70·24	50·74	36·12	24·74	15·64	8·20	1·99
1 in 100	84·07	55·30	37·89	25·46	16·14	8·88	3·09	—	—

Mr. Samuda states further the disadvantage of the locomotive system:—

“Secondly, by the necessity of having great weight and strength of rails and foundation consequent on the employment of locomotive engines. These engines (exclusive of tender) weigh generally from 14 to 15 tons each; and, in addition to the rigidity of road required to sustain this weight passing over it on one carriage, the motion transferred to the wheels by the engines alternately on each side, causes a continual displacement or forcing out of the rails.

“The third, and perhaps the greatest evil, is the heavy expense attendant on working a railway by the ordinary method; and this item is rendered more excessive by the necessity of having a large number of extra engines in store, to keep an adequate supply in working order. By reference to the half-yearly accounts of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, the annual expense for locomotive power and coke is found to be from £50,000 to £60,000 a year, nearly £2000 a mile per annum, on a traffic of about 1700 tons a day. This amount is exclusive of first cost and interest on the original stock.”—p. 22.

This item is one of serious importance. The Parliamentary Report states, that “in respect of locomotive outlay, a line worked by locomotive engines, in order to be well stocked, should have an engine per mile in addition; this mode of working requires water-stations, engine-houses, repairing-shops, etc.” Thus the expense of all these engines, required to be constantly out of use, is exactly so much capital sunk, and yielding no

* Third edition, page 581.

interest. Nor is this a trifling matter, when we consider that each engine costs on an average above £1500, and that the expense of repairs on each in the year amounts to above fifty per cent. All this expense and loss upon capital invested is saved by the employment of a stationary engine, upon which the wear and tear is scarcely worth consideration. We recur to Mr. Samuda's statement:—

“The fourth evil is the large consumption of fuel in proportion to the power obtained; which arises, in part from the great velocity in the movement of the pistons, preventing the steam from acting on them with full force; which causes a back pressure on the pistons, reducing their force in proportion to the velocity at which they move. The power of the engine is thus constantly diminished as the velocity of the train is increased. To so great an extent is the combined action of these defects felt, that when travelling at twenty miles per hour, the effective power of the engine is reduced to half that which would be obtained from the same quantity of steam generated and fuel consumed with a stationary engine. When travelling at thirty miles per hour, it is reduced to less than one-fourth; and at a speed but little exceeding forty-five miles, the power is so far destroyed that the engine will scarcely draw more than itself and tender. An additional waste of fuel, to an immense extent, is also occasioned by the loss of power (as already shown) on inclined planes. And, lastly, the chances of accident from collision, running off the rail, bursting of boilers, etc.; *** From the foregoing remarks it will appear that the evils of the present system are entirely attributable to the use of locomotive power, and the remedy must be sought for in the employment of stationary power in its stead.”—p. 24.

With these disadvantages are contrasted the anticipated results of the atmospheric system:—

“1st. The loss of power occasioned by the locomotive engines having to draw their own weight is entirely avoided; and steep hills may be ascended with no more additional power than that actually due to the acclivity, as there is no weight except the train. There is no other known power which can be applied to locomotion without carrying considerable weight and friction with it. The ill effects of locomotive engines have been already pointed out, and the same disadvantages exist in the application of ropes, which must be drawn along with the train, and become an increased incumbrance on inclined planes. The defects of ropes in other respects are too generally known to need comment.

“2d. The weight of the rails and chairs on the new system may be less by one-third than where locomotive engines are employed, as the carriages of the train will be too light to injure them. The annual charge of maintenance of way will, from the same cause, be reduced to a considerable extent.

“3d. The wear and tear of locomotive, compared with stationary engines, is as 18 to 1.

“4th. By the new system the full power of the engines is always obtained; and on an incline, the additional quantity of fuel consumed in ascending will be saved in descending, as the trains run

down by their own gravity. The expense of fuel will be further decreased, as the expense of using coal is only half that of coke.

“On the new system the velocity depends entirely upon the velocity with which the air is withdrawn from the pipe; therefore, by simply increasing the air-pump, any speed may be attained; and with a fixed quantity of traffic per diem, no considerable increase in the fuel consumed or any other expense is incurred for improved speed, further than the small additional power required to overcome the increased atmospheric resistance. An actual saving in the first cost of a railway constructed for high velocities may be effected, because by performing the journey in less time, a greater number of trains may be despatched each day, and their weight diminished; therefore the piston, having less to draw, may be smaller in diameter. The cost of the pipe (which forms the largest item in the first cost of this railway) will thus be reduced in nearly the same proportion as the speed is increased.”—p. 26.

M. Mallet, in his Report to the French Government, makes an important observation on the effect which a reduction of speed, in the passage of a train, exercises upon the motive force. In describing various experimental trips which he made on the Dalkey line, he says, that in one journey, when travelling at the rate of forty-five miles per hour,—

“During our course the barometer sunk to twenty-one inches; this fall was caused by our going on quicker than the air could be withdrawn. The air which remained in the pipe caused a condensation which lowered the barometer. In the following experiment, made with the same train, a contrary effect was produced. Set off at eight inches, viz., with a power of seven hundred and four pounds. We went on very slowly, and saw the mercury rise to twenty inches gradually. In this manner the air-pump produced a vacuum quicker than we proceeded, and this is a very important point of the atmospheric system. *If a slackness is produced by overloading a train, or if the train stops, the propulsive force instantly augments.*”—p. 16.

We shall not enter into further details of the probable saving to be effected by employing atmospheric pressure on railways. The calculations of the patentees show a large estimated reduction of cost in the construction and laying down of a line on their plan, and a saving of more than one half in the annual cost of working; and we have some guarantee for the general accuracy of their calculations in a comparison of their estimates with the actual cost of construction of the line at Dalkey. This gives us ascertained data. The cost of the apparatus complete, and placed on the line, is £4300 per mile; and that of the steam-engines, vacuum-pumps, engine-houses, etc., £1000: in all, £5300. At the same time we must here mention the remark made by M. Mallet, in describing this apparatus, that the engine “is evidently more powerful than is required for working this road:” he adds,—“I am informed that it would make a vacuum in a pipe of six miles long: they rarely

work this engine to more than half its power at present."

In consequence of the success of the experiments at Wormholt Scrubs, the company of the Dublin and Kingstown Railway, backed by the opinion of Mr. Pim, expressed their desire to adopt the atmospheric principle in an extension of their line from Kingstown to Dalkey. In furtherance of this object they applied to government for a loan of money, on the security of their existing railway, to carry on the works. In the meanwhile, the report above alluded to had been delivered to the Board of Trade, which fully admitted the accomplishment of the *principle* of the atmospheric railway, in the following words: "We consider the principle of atmospheric propulsion to be established, and that the economy of working increases with the length and diameter of the tube." With a creditable public spirit, the government consented to assist in the trial of this national undertaking, and granted a loan of £25,000 to the Dublin and Kingstown Company. The company however could not obtain a line of road without applying for a bill to Parliament; and to obviate the delay and expense which this would occasion, the Board of Works granted them the use of ground in their possession, which had been used for conveying stone from the quarries near Killina to the harbor of Kingstown. The nature of this road presented every difficulty to the formation of a railway; nevertheless the patentees felt such a confidence in their project, that they were glad to have it tried and tested for the first time under circumstances of such unusual difficulty. The accomplishment of the work may on this account be regarded as doubly important. From the nature of the line of road, a series of sharp and difficult curves was unavoidable, upon which no locomotive engine could run without the utmost risk, and at a slow pace. These are now passed with the greatest ease and smoothness at sixty miles an hour, and with loads attached of seventy-two tons at the rate of twenty miles. Another point has here been decided, upon which in fact the applicability of this railroad to extended lines of traffic in a great measure rests,—namely, the power of passing with facility from one section of pipe to another. At present, only one section of pipe is in operation, and consequently this experiment cannot be fully shown; its success however is ascertained by the fact, that the train has repeatedly passed *off* one section, with the greatest ease and regularity. The operation of the valve which divides the sections is simple and beautiful,—we have already quoted M. Teisserenc's description of this,—and the simple fact of the successful operation of this valve is conclusive. If a train can pass without stoppage off one section, it must necessarily enter at once upon the next, and there can be no question as to the facility of repeating this along a line

of any length: a hundred stations can as easily be passed as one.*

The excellent Report of M. Teisserenc, to which we have had occasion to refer, was founded on observations made upon the experimental line at Wormholt Scrubs. After detailing the difficulties and dangers attending the locomotive system, he thus compares it with the atmospheric:

"Le système atmosphérique est exempt des défauts que nous venons de reprocher aussi bien aux locomotives qu'aux machines à câbles. Son application dispenserait à la fois et du poids inutile du moteur dans le premier système, et du poids inutile de l'intermédiaire dans le second; elle permettrait l'excessive division, l'excessive multiplicité des trains, sans accroître les chances de collision, comme cela a lieu dans le système locomotif; sans augmenter la dépense, résultat de l'emploi des locomotives ou des machines à câble, elle fournirait un moteur dont la puissance, bien loin de diminuer avec le poids des objets à traîner, avec la roideur des rampes à franchir, tendrait, au contraire, à croître dans le même sens. Elle rendrait possibles toutes les vitesses avec des charges utiles considérables, sur les chemins les plus planes comme sur les railways les plus inclinés. Bien loin de nécessiter une application lente de la puissance motrice au départ, un ralentissement progressif à l'arrivée, elle permettrait d'accumuler à l'avance la force motrice, de manière à imprimer rapidement aux trains leur maximum de vitesse. Avec elle seraient impossibles et les collisions et les accidents résultant de la présence du feu. Les sorties de rail deviendraient extrêmement difficiles; les effets de la force centrifuge très peu redoutables; puisque le train, composé au plus de deux voitures, serait étroitement lié à la voie. Enfin, construits pour recevoir des voitures trois et quatre fois moins lourdes que les locomotives, les chemins n'auraient plus besoin de rails aussi pesants, de points aussi résistants; les collisions n'étant plus à craindre, pas plus que les encombrements, puisque les marchandises voyageraient aussi vite que les voyageurs, une seule voie serait suffisante. Rien de plus simple, d'ailleurs, que la théorie de l'appareil au moyen duquel on réalise ces nombreux avantages."

—p. 108.

[The atmospheric railway is free from the evils which we have found in locomotives, and in trains drawn by cables. We are able, by means of it, to avoid the weight, in the first case of the locomotive, and in the second, of the cable; it permits us to divide trains at pleasure, and to increase as much as we please their frequency, without increasing the danger of collision, as we should do with locomotives; without increasing the expense, as we should if we used locomotives, or drew the trains by cables: it furnishes a moving power which so far from diminishing with the weight of the train, or the steepness of an ascent, tends to increase under these circumstances. It renders all desirable speed practicable, upon a level road as

* Great credit is due to the engineers, Messrs. Samudras, for the skill and talent displayed in constructing the Dalkey railway, and improving many of the details of working.

well as upon the steepest descents. So far from its being necessary to apply power moderately at starting, and to stop very gradually, it is safe to accumulate the moving power, so as to gain the maximum of speed as early as possible. Collisions and fires are impossible. It will be very difficult to run off the rail:—the effect of the centrifugal force will not be formidable; for the train, consisting at most of two carriages, will be strongly attached to the road. Finally, adapted to carriages three or four times lighter than locomotives, the roads will not need rails so heavy, nor such strong supports. There being no danger of collisions, or of being detained by lumber, (for goods will travel as fast as passengers,) a single track will be sufficient. And above all, there is nothing more simple than the apparatus by which all these advantages are gained.]

This Report awakened the attention of the French Government; and as soon as the works at Dalkey were in a sufficiently advanced state, they sent over another engineer, M. Mallet, Inspector General of Public Works, to furnish a second report. This recently appeared in the French journals, and we shall extract a few passages from it, containing the results of trials upon the Dalkey railway, which are of great interest:—

“Après avoir reconnu que le vide était obtenu d’une manière plus parfaite qu’on n’aurait osé l’espérer, je me suis occupé de la vitesse. Je rapporterai ici quatre expériences.

1. Avec un convoi pesant 38 tonnes (la tonne anglaise est de 2240 livres), le baromètre marquant 25 pouces, l’on a monté en 3 minutes 15 secondes. Par prudence, l’on a employé les freins pour franchir les courbes, ce qui a produit un ralentissement. Le maximum de vitesse, dans cette expérience, a été de 40 milles (16 lieues) à l’heure.

2. Avec le même convoi, l’on est monté en 3 minutes 7 secondes: maximum de vitesse, 45 milles (plus de 18 lieues.)

3. On est parti, le baromètre marquant 8 pouces, avec le même convoi. Pendant le trajet, le baromètre est monté jusqu’à 20 pouces. Le voyage a été effectué en 4 minutes 30 secondes. Sur quelques points, l’on a marché à 30 milles (12 lieues.)

4. Enfin, le baromètre marquant 25 pouces, l’on est parti avec un convoi de 69 tonnes. Le temps du trajet a été de 5 minutes 20 secondes.

Pour descendre, l’on a employé la gravité. A cet effet, l’on a rangé le piston de côté (ce qui se fait avec la plus grande facilité,) afin qu’il ne rencontrât pas de tube. Le temps de la descente a été d’environ 5 minutes. Le mouvement était ralenti par le frottement dans les courbes. Je n’ai rien à dire de ce moyen, usité par plusieurs chemins de fer.”

[After satisfying myself that the vacuum was formed more perfectly than I could have expected, I turned my attention to the speed. I will describe four experiments:

1. With a train weighing 38 tons, the barometer at 25 inches, we went up in 3 minutes 15 seconds. As a precaution we used the break in going round the curves, which lessened our pace. The greatest speed in this experiment was 40 miles an hour.

2. With the same train, we went up in 3 min. 7 sec.; greatest speed 45 miles.

3. We set off with the same train, the barome-

ter at 8 inches. During the passage, it rose to 20. The trip was made in 4 min. 30 sec. At some parts we went at the rate of thirty miles.

4. Lastly—with the barometer at 25, we set out with a train of 69 tons. The time was 5 min. 20 sec.

For descending, we employed gravity. To do this, the piston was fastened on one side (which is easily done) so that it might not touch the tube. The descents took about 5 min. The motion was retarded by the friction of the curves. I have nothing to remark on this practice, which is common on many roads.]

The following results of experiments subsequently made on the Kingstown and Dalkey line are extracted from the “Railway Times” of December 2, 1843. Their importance justifies our inserting them at length.

“Without the slightest hesitation, we have to state that the result of very minute investigation on the spot has fully confirmed the opinions to which we had previously come, from the scientific discussion of the principle, and from the operations of the very imperfect apparatus at Wormholt Scrubs.

“The line between Kingstown and Dalkey is 1½ miles in length, in which there is a rise of 71½ feet, making an average ascent of 1 in 115, towards Dalkey. The main pipe between the rails, which is 15 inches internal diameter, commences at the Kingstown station, and is continued to within 500 yards of Dalkey. The communication between the main pipe and the steam-engine (at Dalkey) is formed through the medium of a close pipe, laid outside the trackway, and attached at the lower end into the main and at the upper end into the vacuum pump. A branch valve is placed at the junction between the close and open main, which allows the vacuum pump to act on the main, or be shut off from it, at pleasure. The dimensions of the engine are,—cylinder, 34½ inches diameter; stroke, 5 feet 6 inches; speed, 242 feet per minute. It works expansively, the steam being admitted in the cylinder at 40 lbs. above the atmosphere, and cut off at one-fourth stroke when the engine is at its full load; it is then expanded for the remaining portion of the stroke, and condensed in the usual way. The degree of cut-off is regulated by a cam worked by the governor, and is therefore proportionately shorter, as the duty of the engine is less; but in no case is the steam admitted for a greater distance than one-fourth of the stroke. The vacuum-pump is double acting. The dimensions are,—diameter, 67 inches; stroke, 5 feet 6 inches; speed, 242 feet per minute. With the above apparatus we saw a vacuum formed in the entire length from Kingstown to Dalkey—

Equal to a col. of mer.	10 in.	(or ¼ of an atmos.)	in 0' 56"
“	“	15 (or ½ “	“ in 1' 51"
“	“	20 (or ⅔ “	“ in 3' 30"

For the purposes of observation, distance posts were placed along the line at intervals of two chains, every tenth post (or one-fourth mile) having a distinguishing mark: and the following were the results of some journeys made for us during our visit;—

“Journey A.—Gross load 62 tons; maximum speed during trip for 2 chains was = 24 miles per hour; total time of journey, 4 min. 48 sec.

“Journey B.—Gross load 72 tons; maximum

speed during trip for 2 chains was = 20 miles per hour ; total time of journey, 5 min. 33 sec.

"Journey C.—Gross load 75 tons ; maximum speed during trip for 2 chains = 21.17 miles per hour ; total time of journey, 6 min. 2 sec.

"Journey D.—Gross load 30 tons ; maximum speed during trip for 2 chains was = 51.5 miles per hour ; time at passing 1½ mile-post 2 min. 57 sec. ; total time of journey, 3 min. 24 sec."

In the same journal of December 16th appeared the following additional details :—

"In following up the investigation, it should be observed that local circumstances, amount of traffic, and steepness of gradients, will to a certain extent influence this consideration ; but with the view of rendering it as generally applicable as possible, we have made the calculations on a similar scale to that in use on the Kingstown and Dalkey line, and have deduced such of the working expenses therefrom as the time it has been in operation will allow. We apprehend that this scale will never have to be exceeded on lines of the *largest* traffic. Where it is decreased the cost will be proportionately lessened, so far as regards construction. The decreased scale will only influence the weight of trains. The speed can be preserved on the smaller as on the larger scale, by maintaining the same relative proportions between the vacuum-pump and the main.

"The scale employed on the Dalkey line is—Vacuum tube, 15 inches diameter ; vacuum pump, 67 inches diameter ; engine, 100 horse-power. It will be well to notice the duty such an apparatus will perform on a level and up various rates of inclination. This proportion between the pump and the tube enables trains to be propelled 50 to 60 miles per hour, and will draw a train of 200 tons on a level.

A train of 80 tons up an incline rising 1 in 160.

"	"	72	"	"	"	1 in 140.
"	"	65	"	"	"	1 in 120.
"	"	58	"	"	"	1 in 100.
"	"	53	"	"	"	1 in 90.
"	"	48	"	"	"	1 in 80.
"	"	44	"	"	"	1 in 70.
"	"	39	"	"	"	1 in 60.
"	"	33	"	"	"	1 in 50.

"The cost of the atmospheric apparatus complete, and placed on the line, is £4300 per mile ; and of the steam-engines, vacuum-pumps, engine-houses, etc., £1000 ; total, £5300. It would scarcely be useful to notice the other items that are necessary to complete a railway on this system, as the earthwork will vary materially according to the nature of the country through which it passes. In a difficult country the saving from adopting such gradients as would be suitable for the atmospheric instead of the locomotive, would considerably more than equal the entire £5300, while on a level or easy country a balance of expense would remain against the atmospheric system up to this point. In all cases the smaller quantity of land that would be required, the diminished size of the bridges, the lighter rails, the absence of all coke and water-stations, workshops, and stock of locomotives, will have to go to the credit of the atmospheric system against the cost of vacuum tube and engines."

* * * * *

"Among some interesting experiments made at Dalkey are the following. The first series shows the uniformity of the sealing process. During the

same day, and after the running of each train, observations were taken of the time required to re-form the vacuum to the height of 15 inches, which was as follows :—

After the 4th trip the barometer rose to

				15 inch. in 1' 45"
"	5th	"	"	15 " in 1 40
"	6th	"	"	15 " in 1 42
"	7th	"	"	15 " in 1 40
"	8th	"	"	15 " in 1 45
"	9th	"	"	15 " in 1 40
"	18th	"	"	15 " in 1 42
"	19th	"	"	15 " in 1 45
"	21st	"	"	15 " in 1 45
"	22nd	"	"	15 " in 1 43

"The second series shows the amount of leakage due to the longitudinal valve, as separated from that due to the air-pump, travelling piston and station valves. In the following experiments the vacuum was in every instance raised to 22 inches ; the engine was then stopped, and the tube was allowed to fill with air by the leakage (from all sources) into it.

With the train {	the gauge fell 18 inches }	Min.
at Kingstown {	i. e. from 22 in. to 4 in. }	in 11 33-100th.
Advanced ¼ mile	" "	in 10 88-100th.
Advanced ½ mile	" "	in 10 76-100th.

the leakage being at the rate of *one inch* in 36.83 sec. in the first instance, *one inch* in 36 sec. in the second instance, *one inch* in 35.91 sec. in the third instance,—showing the additional leakage from the long valve to be only so much as was represented by the gauge falling per inch $\frac{8.3}{100}$ of a second quicker in the first instance, and $\frac{9}{100}$ of a second in the last, and the additional power to compensate this being all the increased haulage power required per half mile. This is an experiment of no ordinary interest, inasmuch as it confirms the notion that the advocates of the system have long urged for it, namely, that every extension of the length is attended with increased advantages, and that while the Atmospheric Railway is equally applicable to short as to long lines, it is by no means applicable only to the former, which its successful application on a short line has induced many to imagine."

We had cited the above experiments, before the appearance of M. Mallet's report ; they however give substantially the same results, but in a more condensed form. Subsequently to the appearance of M. Mallet's first report in the French journals, a second and more detailed one, addressed by him to the French Government, has been published in Paris, and an English translation in London. That gentleman states, that "the fame of the success of this second experiment, made on a scale far greater than that at Wormholt Scrubs, spread itself into France. Immediately M. Teste, the minister, and M. Le Grand, Under Secretary of State of the Public Works, whose attention had been roused by the previous report of M. Teisserenc, desirous to know all the improvements and advantages of a system which might exercise so great an influence on the future prospects of railroads in France, gave me an order to embark for Ireland."

This report is divided into four chapters : the first contains a description of the line from Kings-

town to Dalkey, of the apparatus, and details of experiments; the second chapter treats of the application of the atmospheric system to railroads in general; the third gives the comparative expense of laying down a locomotive railway and one on the atmospheric plan; and the fourth gives the comparative cost of working on the two systems. We have had occasion to cite many remarks contained in this report, regarding the general merits of the atmospheric railway; and it is unnecessary to review it more critically. The chief part is occupied with a minute and careful detail of the experiments which M. Mallet instituted on the Dalkey railway, and upon which his opinions are founded: these merit a close examination, and will be peculiarly valuable to scientific men interested in the subject of railways. M. Mallet examines every advantage and disadvantage of the atmospheric system,—its applicability to existing and new lines, and under every circumstance attending construction. The English translation of this report is of much less value than it might have been, had the French measures and values been reduced to the English equivalents; but a point of still greater importance (and which we are surprised not to see noticed by the translator) is, that all the calculations of M. Mallet are founded upon the French prices of iron and of labor—naturally so in a report addressed to the French government; but unless this fact is borne in mind, throughout the calculations, and the difference noted between the English and French prices of iron, the reader is liable to be seriously misled. Premising this remark, we observe that M. Mallet calculates that, in the cost of construction, the atmospheric system would effect a saving of one-seventh, and in the cost of working a saving of two-fifths. The same calculation, made upon the value of iron in England, would show of course a very much greater reduction. M. Mallet examines carefully and impartially every objection which has been, or is likely to be, raised to the atmospheric system; and in concluding this part of his Report he says:—

“I do not think I have omitted any of the objections which have been pointed out to me. Several are worthy of being taken into consideration. But do any of them present insurmountable difficulties? Are they of a nature to induce us to abandon the invention? I do not think so, and therefore I advocate a trial. If the system had already arrived at perfection no trial would be necessary; we should have but to lay down the works, certain of success; but in spite of the enormous step shown to have been gained in Ireland, much yet remains to be done. Let its judges remember what the locomotives were at their commencement, and the enormous amount of improvement they have experienced during the last twenty years.”—p. 32.

There are many other points, connected with the construction and working, examined by M. Mallet, to which we should have referred, did our space allow,—with respect to the crossings, for

instance, which we shall give in M. Mallet's words, with a suggestion he offers:—

“They are done precisely as on the locomotive roads; for this they divide the pipe; but not to destroy the continuity of the aspiration, the two divided pipes are connected by means of another pipe sunk in the ground, which curves back at a right angle at its two ends, to branch into their lower portion. The points of junction are above the valves of entrance and exit, which the interruption of the pipes compels them to put at their extremity. When in a proper state for use, the valve at the extremity of the pipe at the side by which the train would arrive is closed, as well as the entrance-valve of the other pipe. When the leading carriage appears, the first will be opened as usual by the compressed air driven forwards by the piston. Another valve, placed in the pipe of communication, will be closed at the same time by the effect of the passage of the train. That at the entrance of the next pipe will be opened, when the piston shall have entered this pipe, by the valve-man, or, what is better still, by the train itself. Another means which might be employed consists in not dividing the pipe, but making two inclined planes at 0.05° of slope, per meter, for the passage of carriages. In this case three openings are required, two for the wheels of the carriages, and the third for the piston-rod, the wheel which presses the valve and the cylinder which compresses the composition. The openings would be too large and too deep to allow of their being left uncovered. It would be easy to adapt thick planks of deal, with a counterpoise for this purpose.”—p. 29.

In having occasion to consider attentively, and to cite from, the official reports presented to the English and French governments, we regret to have a comparison forced upon us disadvantageous to the former. The object of a government, in appointing competent judges to report upon any scientific subject, is not merely to have objections raised and difficulties suggested, but to have every advantage as well as every defect of the system explained intelligibly and impartially. This is the view which M. Teisserenc and M. Mallet have taken of their duty; they have given precisely the information, fully and candidly, which might enable the French government to form their opinion on the merits of the invention, and their reports contain a large body of valuable information and remarks. In the English report, whilst the applicability of the atmospheric principle and its advantages, in point both of economy and safety, are distinctly admitted, these admissions appear to be unwillingly extorted, and every advantage is reduced to its minimum of computation. In the French reports, the importance of trying the merits of the invention is pressed upon the government, and an earnest desire is manifested to promote the investigation of a great work of national importance.

The historical sketch of the invention and application of the Atmospheric Railway here terminates; it is no longer an experiment, but an established means of transit, tested and proved by fair and repeated trials, and by the opinions of the most

eminent engineers,* English and continental, who have witnessed and watched its success, and expressed their opinions satisfactorily upon the subject. Indeed, it is this testimony that has induced us to offer the present article to our readers: we waited until practical results had been obtained, and the merits of the invention had been placed beyond a doubt, before we felt it right to express an opinion. It has ceased to be a question limited to the circle of purely scientific inquiry, and now comes to be regarded in the results of its application; the power being once obtained, it remains only for enterprise to accomplish the rest, and to render it available to the service of man. The subject of the atmospheric railway has, since the opening of the Dalkey line, excited a daily growing interest, and the attention of governments and companies is drawn more and more to the adoption of the system.

In the course of a recent discussion in the House of Commons, on the appointment of a select committee to consider the standing-orders relating to railways, Sir Robert Peel stated that he had concurred in the opinion,—

“That the public and the government are not to be precluded from availing themselves of any suggested improvement or invention of science, which may probably affect the present railway property; as also in the remark that we are not to be called on to compensate a company for its choosing a line upon which it may have been found necessary to expend £60,000 per mile. Far from it; if you can successfully compete, by means of any invention, upon a turnpike-road with such a railway company, you are perfectly at liberty to do so. If new discoveries are made applicable to rapid conveyances, the public will avail itself of them, and those improvements will always be the best security and check against imposition or exaction. What may be attempted by means of the Atmospheric Railroad it is difficult to conjecture; but I know that those who have witnessed its exhibition near Dublin, have returned to this country with changed opinions as to its applicability to longer lines than one or two miles. The proprietors of railways must soon find out that they are deceiving themselves if they neglect to provide third-class carriages. But the true interests of society will best be protected by holding over them the checks of competition, and of the improvements that may take place in science, rather than by attempting forcibly to control these companies, by attempting to reduce their profits or take the management of their property out of their own hands.†”

This is the sound and only safe course of legislation,—to encourage competition, is an indirect and proper means of checking monopoly.

* Amongst the opinions expressed by the most eminent of our engineers is that of Mr. Brunel. The prospectus of the Gravesend and Chatham Company, which has recently appeared, contains a recommendation of the Committee, founded upon the opinion of their engineer, I. K. Brunel, Esq., to adopt the atmospheric system. The prospectus states that,—“The Committee, having made a satisfactory enquiry as to the decided economy with which the Dublin and Kingstown Extension Railway is now being worked as an Atmospheric Line, and their Engineer having satisfied himself as to the advantages this plan of motive power affords, recommend its adoption on the proposed line of communication, both as a means of keeping the capital within a very moderate compass and increasing the profits by a reduced charge of working.”

† See debate of February 6, 1844. The importance of the Atmospheric Railway has been several times forcibly

In consequence of the determination of the government to continue the mail-packet station at Holyhead, a line of railroad is projected from that place to join the Chester line. With a view to ascertain the practicability of adopting the atmospheric principle on this line, (chiefly as a means of obtaining for the mails a considerable increase of speed,) Mr. Robert Stevenson has been desired to examine the works on the Dalkey railway, and to furnish a report to the government.

We shall, in conclusion of this article, briefly advert to some of the advantages which may be derived from the adoption of the atmospheric railway, in a social, industrial and commercial point of view. We have here a new and astonishing application of power opened to us, and it is impossible to anticipate all the important results to which this may lead. Success has silenced the questionings and hostility of interested opponents to the system; and if men are wise, they will at least pause before they rush into new speculations on a system which will probably soon be superseded.

The introduction of the atmospheric railway opens a new era in the means of transit, because, from the great reduction in the cost of construction and working, it is clear that we must enter upon an entirely new scale of economical calculations. This will operate in manifold ways; it will enable railway companies to lower their rates, whilst deriving even greater profits than at present, and thus to open means of travelling to larger classes of the community. Again: one great feature in the atmospheric railway is, that it is practicable on lines of road where the locomotive system is wholly inapplicable and useless. Let any one take a map of England and trace the net of railroads which have come into active operation within a few years: let him imagine this immense benefit, which at present is restricted by the cost attending it to traffic between large towns, extended over the whole country, carrying passengers and produce from one little market-town to another, bringing all this advantage to every man's door and placing it within every man's enjoyment. The benefits to the nation, in calling out her industrial powers, assisting her commercial, manufacturing, and agricultural interests, form too large a subject for us to enter upon here, but too obvious and important a consideration to escape attention. In a moral point of view, likewise, the result would be to extend largely the advantages of social intercourse and of education in every shape, which are now only to be found in large communities,—in fact, of centralizing the power and raising the moral character of the nation.

We have uniformly urged the importance of calling into action, by multiplying facilities, all the sources of our national wealth; and we have pointed this out as one great means of substantially benefitting Ireland. To unfold the resources of a country, is to teach a people their value,—the most important lesson of national politics and national economy conveyed in the most practical and intelligible form. It is impossible to estimate the change which a large system of railroads intersecting Ireland in every direction, stimulating production and exciting the energies of her population, would produce; and if that country, whose interests we are bound to promote, not less from moral allusion to in the House of Commons, and we observe that Mr. Shaw has given notice of a motion, after the Easter recess, for the appointment of “a Select Committee to inquire into and report upon the importance of an early and complete trial of the Atmospheric Railway.”

tives of policy than of justice, has a claim to share in any great work of national benefit, it has an especial claim in the present instance, where Irishmen have been foremost to second the efforts of English skill and talent, and to overcome the obstacles opposed to the public good by private interests and monopoly. If the Atmospheric Railway should prove, as we anticipate, a new source of benefit to mankind, it will be remembered, not ungratefully in this country, that to Ireland we owe its first encouragement and adoption.

Extending our view to the Continent, some idea may be formed of the extent to which the nations of Europe will be benefitted by this invention of Mr. Clegg, from the length of the lines of railways now constructing in central Europe.*

In Austria the line from Trieste to Vienna is progressing. The atmospheric pressure removes the grand difficulty presented within a short distance of the capital, at the traverse of the chain of Alps which forms the boundary of Styria. Without such aid it would be a most costly work to carry a railroad over the Noric and Carnian Alps to the sea, even if the plan of inclined planes were resorted to. From Vienna the line passes to Olmütz, where it branches off westward through Prague to Dresden and Hamburg. From Olmütz a second line goes northward to the Riesen mountains, and through Silesia to Stettin. A third line, which runs to the salt mines of Galicia, will join the Russian railroad from Cracow to the Baltic, by the valley of the Vistula. In mountainous countries, the momentum acquired from descents is available for succeeding ascents, and the difficulties in the one system become facilities in the other.

The prosperity of Hungary is indissolubly linked with a good communication between the valley of the Save and the Adriatic Sea. A road of sufficient width, and of splendid construction—a monument of the public spirit of the Hungarian nobles—runs over the Julian Alps from Carlstadt to Vienna; its length is ninety English miles. The atmospheric railway could profitably be adapted to that road, whose gradients, although moderate, no locomotive engine could overcome. In this manner, the energies of twenty millions of Austrian and Turkish subjects would be made available in the markets of Europe, and the products of some of the finest countries of this quarter of the globe would be added to the general stock.

Berlin is to be connected with Hamburg by a direct line, and with the Rhine by two lines of railways. One will pass through Minden to Düsseldorf and Cologne, and there unite with the Belgic-Rhenish net. A second will pass through Cassel to Frankfort, and join the Taunus railway. To the east, a line to Königsberg is projected. From Frankfort, Hesse Darmstadt is continuing the Taunus line to Heidelberg and Mannheim, where the Baden net will take it up, and carry the communication on to the Swiss frontier. A railway is now constructing from Basle to Zürich. The Wirtemberg net of railways will connect the Baden and Hessian nets with the lake of Constance and with Bavaria: they cross the heights that separate the Rhine and its tributaries from the Danube. One line of this net, which has been

considered scarcely practicable, is that from the Rhine by the way of Pforzheim and Stuttgart to Ulm, in which the ascent at Geisslingen is looked upon as insurmountable. By the aid of the atmospheric pressure this obstacle can be overcome, and the Rhine be connected with the Danube at the shortest interval. The Bavarian net is to consist of a central line running from the foot of the Alps to Saxony, which is to be traversed at right angles by a line from the Austrian to the Wirtemberg frontier, passing through Munich to Augsburg.

A most important decision has been made in Bavaria, to commence the line that is to connect Bamberg with Frankfort immediately. The country between these two towns is so mountainous, that it would require an immense outlay to construct a locomotive railroad. The atmospheric system, by availing itself of the principle of gravity, might perhaps be even more economically adapted to such a line than to a level.

Of the immense advantages which these vast countries will derive from the adoption of the atmospheric pressure to railway carriages it is therefore needless to say much. The anxiety entertained in all these countries to be released from the necessity of providing coals for these lines has been proved, by the reward of 100,000 florins voted by the Germanic Diet to the inventor of a galvanic machine at Frankfort. It is true that the machine has not been finished, and the money is consequently not yet paid. No machine depending upon a moving principle scarcely less costly than coals, can pretend to vie with the beautiful simplicity of the atmospheric pressure.

It is not merely the difficulty of providing coals that is an obstacle to railways on the continent. The cost of carriage of such a bulky article, in a country where the communications are indifferent, is a serious inconvenience, and one that, on the large net of railways we have described, would form an enormous drain upon the industrial resources of the country. A similar difficulty presents itself in central India, where railroads connecting the capitals have become almost indispensable, both in a military and in a political point of view. With the atmospheric system, the difficulty of collecting depôts of coal is obviated, and we may soon expect to see a railway connecting Bombay and Calcutta.

In this article we have endeavored to give our readers, first, an historical sketch of an invention which promises to realize such important benefits; secondly, an intelligible description of the construction and working of the apparatus; and thirdly, an examination of the merits of the system. We have consequently deemed it necessary to extract largely from all the reports and documents hitherto published, in separate and detached forms,—to cite the opinions of those eminent engineers who have instituted experiments and carefully examined the system in all its bearings, and lastly, to give the results obtained on the trials that have been made: these are of a peculiar value at this stage of the invention, as affording facts upon which calculations and reasoning may be grounded. We have carefully considered what might be most serviceable to the public to know, and in conclusion must express a hope, that the recommendation urged upon the French Government by M. Mallet, to give the system a fair and full trial, will not be thrown away upon the government of our own country.

* At the end of last year there were twenty-one lines of railroad open in Germany, the total length of which was 1033 miles. The railways then in progress would extend to nearly 1000 miles. Since that period many others have been projected.

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